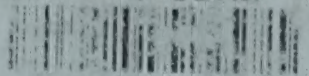


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1858 ① digestion

② vitamins ~~③ diet~~

④ foods ⑦ human diet

⑤ acid base factors

⑥ ^{human} nutrition

⑦ high concentration foods

⑧ low " foods

⑨ supplementary feeding

⑤ disease management

⑥ human diseases



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COMPLETE FOOD TABLES

BRIDGES' FOOD AND BEVERAGE ANALYSES

MARJORIE R. MATTICE

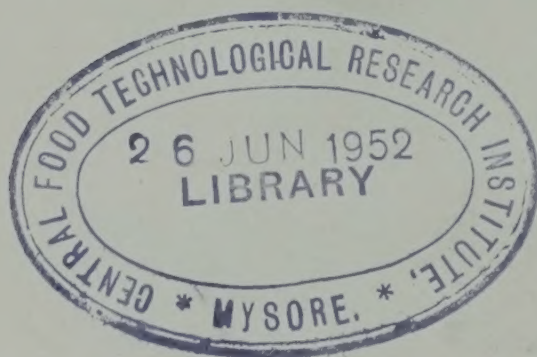
A.B., Sc.M.

Bridges' Dietetics For The Clinician

FIFTH EDITION, THOROUGHLY REVISED AND EDITED

By HARRY J. JOHNSON, M.D., F.A.C.P.

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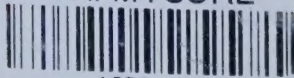
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PREFACE TO THE FIFTH EDITION

IN preparing the fifth edition of Bridges' Dietetics for the Clinician, the editor made a sincere effort to maintain the general form of presentation so successfully arranged by the late Dr. Bridges. It was the present editor's privilege to be associated with Dr. Bridges in practice during the time the first three editions were prepared. Because of this, he has been familiar with the contents as well as the method of presentation.

In the fifth edition an attempt was made to incorporate only the practical advances in the field of nutrition. The many contributors have been very mindful of the purpose for which the book was first written and have limited their material to that which the general practitioner of medicine, as well as the specialist, will find helpful in treating the patient.

The editor wishes to express his appreciation to the many contributors of the previous editions who have once again carefully reviewed their material and augmented this with the most recent advances. In addition there are many additional authorities whose contributions will make this edition more valuable and complete. Among these are Clarence Bandler, M.D. (Urology), Joseph Berg, M.D. (Vitamins), Harold Clark, M.D. (Rectal Disease), Joseph Eidelsberg, M.D. (Endocrinology), Clarence Fuller, M.D. (Gastro-Intestinal Disease), Edward Hartung, M.D. (Arthritis), Vincent Larkin, M.D. (Pediatrics), Ruth Lloyd, B.S., M.A. (Practical Evaluation of Food), Jerome Marks, M.D. (Gastro-Intestinal Disease), Robert McGrath, M.D. (Cardiology), Philip Roen, M.D. (Urology).

The Complete Food Tables in the appendix are recommended to the reader as a thoroughly revised reference table. This was prepared and arranged by Miss Marjorie R. Mattice, A.B., Sc.M., who is the editor of "Bridges' Food and Beverage Analyses."

H. J. J.

New York City

PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

THE preparation of a new Edition was prompted by an appreciation that food classifications to date, even those included in the previous editions, have been based mainly upon the analyses of raw products. Insufficient cognizance of the analyses of foods in the edible state has rendered it necessary to present to the medical public a relatively new text-book based upon more accurate and up-to-date foundations.

The author feels that there is a greater need, than has heretofore ever existed, for a book on dietary management which is readily understandable and from which practice can be immediately instituted.

Diet therapy literature has been extensively reviewed and an assimilation made of the various dietetic proposals heretofore presented. The study of dietary fads and pet recipes of various countries, together with personal investigations into all dietary regimens, has afforded an opportunity to survey the field of dietetics. The material taken therefrom is believed to be not only physiologically sound but, from personal application, thoroughly practical.

Much of the subject matter has been augmented and rewritten. The portion devoted to the Distribution of Foods has been radically changed in keeping with the latest knowledge of foods and their nutritive, vitamin and mineral constituents. Of necessity, therefore, the majority of the menus have been rewritten, and amplified with the newer data. A number of diets for diseases of current interest have been added.

The food tables in the Appendix have been simplified and greatly augmented to render available all reliable analyses of the common as well as some of the "proprietary" foods. In no wise does the Appendix equal in volume the material to be found in "Food and Beverage Analyses."

This Edition still maintains the persistent purpose of supplying a practical addition to the armamentarium of the nutritional expert, home economist, general practitioner and hospital interne. It is hoped that it may also continue to be used in the dietetic departments of both hospitals and clinics. In the face of present day interest in nutrition and its principles, it is further hoped that the

intelligent layman may find it a helpful guide in establishing the value of any nutritional proposal.

The author has been fortunate in obtaining the aid of the following, who are specialists in their respective fields: Shailer U. Lawton, M.D., Adolescence; W. C. Spain, M.D., Allergy; J. Russell Twiss, M.D., Cholecystitis; Irving A. Swanson, D.M.D., Dentistry; James J. Short, M.D., Diabetes Mellitus; George A. Blakeslee, M.D., Epilepsy; J. William Hinton, M.D., Goiter; Arthur Nilsen, M.D., Otolaryngology; Edward C. Brenner, M.D., Surgery in Diabetes; R. Franklin Carter, M.D., Surgical Conditions.

Acknowledgment and appreciation are extended to Drs. Meyer H. Freund (Rectal Conditions), Henry E. Marks (Vitamins), Terry M. Townsend (Urologic Diseases), Herman O. Mosenthal (Bright's Disease) and Carl P. Sherwin (Physiology and Chemistry of Digestion) for their extensive contributions.

Harry J. Johnson, M.D., and Louise Schutz, M.S., have furnished the section on Food Adjuncts. The material on Dermatology was supplied by Samuel Ayres, M.D. The portion on Gynecology and Obstetrics, prepared by Mortimer N. Hyams, M.D., was supervised by Walter T. Dannreuther, M.D. The author is particularly indebted to N. Thomas Saxl, M.D., for having rewritten and amplified the part on Pediatrics.

Since the author is fully aware of the inability of physicians to incorporate diet principles in the form of proper and palatable menus, this book has been prepared with aid from the Dietary Department of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital.

Appreciation is expressed to Marjorie R. Mattice, A.B., Sc.M., Assistant Director of the Biochemical Laboratory of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital, for collaborating in the preparation of the Appendix. It is conceded that without her aid and knowledge this volume would have lost a great deal of its scientific value.

Appreciation is hereby expressed to Stella Scott, R.N., for her general coöperation and to those contributing to the former editions who have continued their efforts and interests to make this Third Edition possible. The assistance and criticisms of my many associates, friends and patients have been most helpful.

Finally, full credit and appreciation is given to Marie T. Bridges for her irreplaceable aid and support.

NEW YORK.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE feeding of the sick, or *diet therapy*, is both an art and a science. To effect desired results intelligently, a knowledge is required which extends into many branches of science as well as the practice of medicine and preparation of foods. Not only must the practitioner have a knowledge of foodstuffs and their various analyses, but he must also have a complete knowledge of physiology and pathology.

Throughout centuries, in all the fields of medicine, efforts have been made to obviate empiricism and substitute specific knowledge. Though these efforts are constantly meeting greater success with each decade, it cannot as yet be stated that medicine has been reduced to a simple rule-of-thumb procedure. Certainly this is true to a very great extent in diet therapy.

In the past, the feeding of the patient was a matter left to the housewife, controlled to some degree by the physician and was based not on scientific knowledge, but generally on the whims and fancies, as well as the physical disabilities of the patient.

In the majority of pathologic conditions encountered, there is no difference of opinion in reference to the general, if not the specific, mode of diet therapy to be instituted. The result is, that aside from minor physical changes, the diet regimen is the same throughout the world. This, however, is not the case in certain other pathologic conditions. A review of the literature reveals many inconsistencies and few sound premises for the various unorthodox dietetic proposals.

Diabetes is one disease to which extensive dietetic study has been applied. To a great degree prior to the introduction of insulin, and to a much greater degree thereafter, the influence of the dietetic treatment of diabetes has been widely emphasized by the medical profession. In diet therapy, what previously was considered laboratory information has now been found by the practitioner to be of clinical importance and essential to his armamentarium.

At present, divergence of opinion renders it improbable that any single diet established for a pathologic condition will meet with universal approval. It seems advisable to propose for a diseased condition, a diet which meets the presenting changes in physiologic functions and has been proved by experience to be efficacious in accomplishing the results for which it is prescribed.

A perusal of the literature reveals a most discouraging assortment of information in reference to dietetic management. By way of illustration, the practitioner, desirous of prescribing for his patient who is suffering from some specific disease, takes recourse to his library, and as a rule generally finds the following: In one book or another he locates a diet for the specific disease. Probably about three-fourths of the material is devoted to involved chemistry, caloric details and other data having to do with foods; the remain-

ing fourth may deal with specific diets. Having found the desired disease discussed either in one-half page or in fifty pages of reading material, he then encounters one of several probabilities: a lengthy pro and con discussion of the desired diet, with frequent quotations from sources which commonly are diametrically opposed; a terse paragraph outlining the principles of a diet, frankly leaving the development of the menus to the physician; or, the omission of the underlying principles of an outlined diet, which has been enlarged for practical purposes in a very inadequate manner. All of the foregoing leaves the physician in a quandary unless he is thoroughly trained in dietary preparation and compilation.

It is one thing to realize that the pathology of a certain disease requires a high-protein or a low-carbohydrate diet. It is quite another matter for the physician, without either expert dietetic training or adequate text-book aid, to explain in detail a prescribed diet to a nurse or a worried relative.

With the marked advances, particularly in blood chemistry, it is reasonable to assume that as time progresses, the proper ordering of a diet will become a specific detailed prescription rather than a relatively gross dietetic compilation. Particular evidence of this trend is exhibited in the dietetic management of gall-bladder and liver diseases. With a better understanding of the inter-relationship and the significance of the various biliary constituents, the older ideas in reference to diet are becoming obsolete.

It is with full realization of these facts that the following dietetic information has been prepared. The material pertaining to the mechanics, physiology and chemistry of digestion has been markedly condensed and shorn of extraneous, non-practical discussion.

The metabolism of food has been clarified and presented in a minimum of space without omitting its practical applications.

For convenience, wherever possible, the various disease entities have been arranged alphabetically and the specific diets offered in orderly sequence.

The presentation of each disease has been divided as follows:

A.—A brief discussion of the physiologic and pathologic needs presented by the patient.

B.—A detailed listing of those foods to be omitted from the diet.

C.—A listing of those foods which may be taken in limited quantities.

D.—A presentation to the reader, and hence to the patient, of a series of practical edible items of food, readily obtainable, arranged in accordance with the previously outlined principles.

E.—Wherever indicated there are added a number of practical medical and culinary suggestions.

We are fully aware that there are diverse opinions as to the dietary management of many diseases. Criticism can be anticipated when any specific principle is dictated for a given disease. However, the modes of dietary treatment herein presented have proved efficacious in both hospital and private practice.

PART I.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

SECTION I.

MECHANICS OF DIGESTION.

AT the risk of becoming too elementary, it is thought wise to reiterate that which might have escaped our memories during the years elapsing since medical school graduation.

Following is a brief résumé of the mechanics of digestion from the moment food is introduced into the mouth to its evacuation from the body.

MASTICATION.

The amount of chewing that food undergoes in the mouth is dependent upon the quantity of saliva, the nature of the food itself, together with the acquired habit of swallowing large or small masses. This latter factor is purely an individual characteristic.

The saliva itself serves to moisten the buccal cavity and also the ingested food, rendering the division of food easier to accomplish. Additionally, the saliva moistens and hence lubricates the esophagus.

The process of mastication is purely one of a muscular type and is subdivided into three kinds of mandibular movements: depression and elevation, projection and retraction and lateral deviation. The depression and elevation is generally associated with the lateral deviation. This combination subdivides the particles of food by both a cutting and grinding action. Projection and retraction are regulated by the motion of the tongue, resulting in the food being kept in proper dental apposition.

Extensive research has been done in testing the actual physical power exerted by the jaws. The power exhibited when measured in pounds has been astounding. This has been specifically elicited in cracking nuts.

The process of the mechanical diminution in size and the mixture with the saliva finally reduces the food to what is called the "bolus." The food, after being reduced to a size, which is dependent upon the habit of the individual, is then forcibly thrown posteriorly from the mouth, through to the pharynx and thence into the esophagus.

ESOPHAGEAL FUNCTION.

The rate of food passage, from its entrance into the esophagus to the cardiac end of the stomach, varies directly in proportion to its fluidity. Fluids pass into the stomach essentially by gravitation,

with little or no interruption. Semi-solid foods pass more slowly, propelled by peristaltic waves in the esophagus which proceed from above downward.

The time of food passage through the various portions of the esophagus is unequally distributed. A definite retardation of the food progress is observed at the lower end of the esophagus and at the cardiac sphincter.

The musculature of the esophagus, as in most of the intestinal tract, consists of smooth muscles arranged in two layers, an inner circular and an outer longitudinal.

The mechanics of the peristaltic waves apparently present areas of contractions of the circular fibers, proximal and distal to which are areas of relaxation. Hence, the bolus enters the area of relaxation behind which is the rapidly progressing area of constricted circular fibers, resulting in downward propulsion of the material. It is the presence of the food itself in the esophagus which institutes the swallow reflex which in turn is exhibited as peristalsis. Roentgen study renders these phenomena readily demonstrable.

GASTRIC DIGESTION.

Since the introduction of the Roentgen-ray the study of the mechanics of the stomach has upset many of our previous apparently well-established ideas of gastric action.

The muscular layers of the stomach are composed of an outer longitudinal and an inner circular. A third additional layer of circular fibers is present at the junction of the fundus and pylorus, which is termed the "sphincter antri pylori."

Strange to say, the amount of peristalsis observable at the cardia of the stomach is minimal. The peristaltic action, in the main, becomes definitely evident at the area of the "sphincter antri pylori" and progresses with great definiteness distally to the pylorus.

Liquids flow rapidly from the stomach through the pylorus and thenceforth downward. The passage of the food from the cardia to the pylorus is dependent primarily on its physical characteristics together with the general muscular tone and secretory power of the stomach. The rate of passage is dependent on the availability of the gastric juices and their capability of physical contact with the meal. The more fluid the gastric contents, the more rapid is the evacuation.

The food on entering the stomach assumes a restive stage in the cardia, from which it is propelled forward by the circular constrictions to the pyloric sphincter. The circular constriction occupies about twenty seconds in traveling from its site of origin to the pylorus. Coincidentally, several circular constrictions are progressing distally. These peristaltic waves force the food to the pyloric ring. The number of waves present in the stomach of a normal individual at any one time may be as many as three.

These gastric peristaltic movements mix the food with the various gastric secretions, producing a liquid known as "chyme." In this

From the food passes through the pylorus into the first portion of the duodenum.

PYLORIC FUNCTION.

The functions of the pylorus are manifold. Contrary to the opinion of our forerunners in medicine, its opening does not await complete gastric digestion, but is constantly observed under Roentgen-rays to open as soon as food reaches the stomach. This opening is intermittent throughout the entire period of gastric digestion and continues until the stomach has been completely evacuated.

The pyloric function appears to be selective. Its facility of opening is governed by the size of the divided food particles present, as well as the nature of the food itself. It has been observed that carbohydrates begin to leave the stomach soon after their ingestion. Proteins occupy twice as much time for their evacuation while fats suffer the greatest retardation. The average meal, consisting in an admixture of all foodstuffs, in the presence of proper gastric and pyloric adjustment, should leave the stomach in four hours.

DUODENAL FUNCTION.

As food leaves the stomach it enters the duodenum, where the chyme is brought into contact with the various biliary and pancreatic secretions. The peristaltic activity in the upper portion of the duodenum is sluggish, which fact is routinely observable in Roentgen study.

The lower portion of the duodenum, on the other hand, is equipped with perhaps the most rapid peristaltic evacuative power in the gastro-intestinal tract. As a result Roentgen films rarely show a well-defined lower portion of the duodenum.

JEJUNAL AND ILEAL DIGESTION.

The musculature of the small intestine consists of two layers: a circular and a longitudinal. Due to the activity of these two layers, the mechanics of the small intestines are divided into two types, "rhythmic segmentation" and "peristaltic rush" or travel wave.

"Rhythmic segmentation" movements churn the intestinal contents, further subdividing the intestinal material. In addition, the subdivided particles are brought into intimate relationship with the absorbing surface of the mucous membrane, aiding digestion and assimilation.

The second type of small bowel activity, the "peristaltic rush" or travel wave, is mainly responsible for the downward propulsion of the intestinal contents. These waves originate in any portion of the small intestine and vary in length.

It is to be noted that the combination of these two activities unquestionably facilitates absorption from the intestinal contents, due to the fact that they tend to increase the flow of lymph and blood.

As has been observed in the upper intestinal tract, the more fluid the contents, the more rapid the downward progress. In the small intestine liquids pass with little or no peristaltic aid. The more solid material invokes the combined muscular activities aforesaid.

ILEOCECAL VALVE FUNCTION.

The ileocecal valve consists of a sphincter form of muscular tissue and two membranous flaps of unequal size. Its function is to prohibit the regurgitation of bowel contents from the cecum into the ileum. The function of this anatomical structure has frequently been the subject of controversy. Ileocecal valve incompetency has been viewed as a definitely pathological and even operable condition. Since the introduction of Roentgen-rays, the percentage of ileocecal valve incompetency, determinable by barium colon enema, has been well over 50 per cent in routinely examined patients. The frequent presence of ileocecal valve incompetency indicates the general inefficiency of the valve.

COLONIC DIGESTION.

The large intestine, or colon, is divided into four parts, namely: the cecum, adjacent to which is the appendix, the ascending, transverse and the descending portions of the colon.

The action observable in the colon differs essentially from any heretofore discussed. Whereas there are present the customary peristaltic and pendular motions, anti-peristaltic movements are to be observed for the first time in the form of normal function.

Immediately upon the entrance of the chyme through the ileocecal valve into the colon, anti-peristaltic waves direct the material into the cecum. The material is now sent forward in the direction of the hepatic flexure by peristaltic waves, where it is again thrown back into the cecum by the anti-peristalsis.

As will be recollected, the ascending colon is furnished with transverse partitions called "haustral markings." During the course of this constant whirling, the material goes from haustrum to haustrum, hence the designation "haustral churning." During this process the contents are constantly losing water into the system and the fecal material assumes a more solid consistency as it escapes into the transverse colon. The unabsorbed fluid contents naturally tend to gravitate to the cecum, as the more solid material progresses forward.

The peristaltic activity of the colon in relation to the small intestine appears to be insignificant. Long peristaltic waves carry the material, now somewhat dehydrated, into the transverse colon, through the descending colon and sigmoid, into the rectum.

The cecum, the ascending and the transverse colon tend to be a fecal reservoir. Roentgen examination generally shows fecal contents in the above-noted areas, with little or no feces in the descending colon and sigmoid.

In practice the study of the colon under Roentgen examination reveals a much lower site of those portions of the intestine than is theoretically believed. Additionally, undue angulation at the splenic or hepatic flexure is by no means uncommon. Theoretically, this angulation, as well as the aforementioned ptosis, should result in peristaltic retardation. This, however, very infrequently appears to be the case.

SIGMOIDAL FUNCTION.

In the various studies of the intestinal tract the functions of the sigmoid seem to have been studiously avoided. It provides a connecting link about 40 cm. in length between the distal portion of the descending colon and the rectum. The digestive function seems to be nil.

RECTAL FUNCTION.

The presence of fecal material in the rectum in conjunction with the long peristaltic wave, previously noted, serves as a stimulus to initiate the action of defecation. The gradually increasing mass of rectal contents stimulates the muscular responses which are required for evacuation.

By many it is thought that the close apposition of the rectal contents to the internal sphincter, coupled with the amount of distention present, is the chief telegraphic communication, hinting the need for evacuation. The control of evacuation is an acquired and voluntary one and rests in the volitional power exerted over the external sphincter.

TIME OF ALIMENTARY EVACUATION.

Obviously, the period for evacuation of the gastro-intestinal contents in the normal human is subject to many deciding factors. However, some conclusions in the majority of so-called normal individuals should be reached in order that variations therefrom may be readily recognized.

The period of *esophageal* passage is accorded as being from three to eight seconds, depending upon the fluidity of the "bolus."

In general, following the ingestion of a moderate-sized meal, the *stomach* should be completely evacuated at the end of four to six hours. The rapidity with which the meal leaves the stomach is dependent upon its own constituents. The more fluid the meal, the more rapid is the evacuation. The higher the fat content, the more concentrated the meal, the slower evacuation becomes.

The presence of gastric residue after six hours, following the ingestion of a normal meal, as evidenced by Roentgen-ray examination, gastric expression or other means, is generally a finding indicative of gastric or pyloric malfunction.

The time consumed by the passage of a meal throughout the length of the *small intestine* is short. It is approximated at three hours. Insufficient study has been given to the small intestine to render proper interpretation of retardation, or of too rapid intes-

tinal passage, to be of clinical significance. Exception to this rule is evident in the presence of obstruction or like conditions in the ileum.

The normal colon, apparently the real reservoir of the alimentary canal, requires approximately twenty-four hours for its complete emptying.

To all intents and purposes, in the presence of normal function, the human being should evacuate ingested food approximately thirty-six hours following its oral reception.

The establishment of a specific number of hours required for the normal passage of food, from the moment of its ingestion to evacuation, is subject to wide latitude. Various substances have been followed throughout the tract by Roentgen-ray examination, and varying periods have been observed between their initial presence in the stool and the complete elimination. "The time for passage of a barium sulfate meal through the gastro-intestinal tract will vary with the type of meal employed. A protein barium meal causes slight delay, a dextrose meal a moderate delay, and an olive oil meal a delay of about five hours. The times quoted below are for a standard water barium meal which consists of 5 ounces (150 Gm.) of barium sulfate and from 3 to 5 ounces (90 to 150 cc.) of water. The stomach empties in two hours and occasionally in from two and one-half to three hours, the small intestine in from two to four hours. Usually at four hours the head of the barium column enters the cecum, at the hepatic flexure of the colon in from six to seven hours, and at the splenic flexure in eight hours. Filling of the sigmoid is variable and may be between the ninth and the seventeenth hour. Usually at the end of twelve hours the barium is evenly distributed from the cecum to the middle of the sigmoid. After twenty-four hours the largest part of the barium has reached the lower sigmoid and rectum and is evacuated."—J. A. M. A., **110**, 2027, 1938.

SECTION II.

PHYSIOLOGY AND CHEMISTRY OF DIGESTION.

CARL P. SHERWIN, M.D., Sc.D.

Introduction.—Of greater importance than the mechanical phases of digestion, discussed in the preceding section, are the changes which convert food into those chemical units adapted to physiologic need.

The term, *food*, refers to any substance capable of supplying heat and energy to the body, and thereby promoting body function and growth. It is convenient to divide food into two classes: (1) The energy-producing foods, which may be termed the caloric; and (2) the accessory food substances, which yield no heat but are essential for the proper function of body tissues. The caloric foods are the carbohydrates, proteins, and fats. In addition to these, water, inorganic salts (frequently designated as "minerals"), and vitamins are of paramount importance to vital processes despite the fact that certain of these chemicals occur in infinitesimal amounts.

As far as is known, *digestion* involves only hydrolytic splitting of complex substances into simpler ones. Hydrolysis is a double decomposition in which water is the reacting agent. The process is accomplished with the aid of organic *catalysts*, called *enzymes*. A catalyzer alters the velocity of a chemical change, usually accelerating it. Enzymes occur in such minute quantities that their presence is designated in terms of activity rather than concentration. It is said that, although the exact nature of enzymatic action is uncertain, the agent is believed to be intact at the conclusion of the hydrolytic process. Actually, the enzyme is subject to deterioration, particularly under conditions involving definitely subnormal concentrations or stagnation. Enzymes frequently require activation and are extraordinarily sensitive to changes in hydrogen-ion concentration, although activity may be unaltered in the presence of chemicals (*e. g.*, fluoride, alcohol) which are inimical to life. Activity is independent of the living processes of the cells which elaborate digestive enzymes. These organic catalysts are highly specific with reference to the stereochemistry of the compounds upon which they act. The substance attacked by an enzyme is known as the *substrate*.

Digestion prepares the food for absorption which is a physico-chemical process whereby the end-products of enzymatic and, unfortunately, bacterial activity reach the blood and lymph streams. The absorbed food undergoes metabolic change leading to tissue repair and maintenance (*anabolism*) or to oxidation (*catabolism*) for energy purposes. Catabolism also includes the breakdown of body tissue through wear and tear.

Chemical digestion passes through three distinct steps before provision is made for absorption. Inadequacy of these processes results in intestinal putrefaction.

SALIVARY DIGESTION.

Saliva is secreted by three pairs of glands, the submaxillary, sublingual and parotid, which are reinforced by numerous small buccal glands. The saliva is an admixture of the various secretions, its composition depending upon the predominating influence of any one pair of glands. According to Comroe the parotid saliva is a clear, limpid fluid containing little or no mucin. The sublingual secretion is viscid, being composed chiefly of mucin. The submaxillary glands produce both a serous and a mucilaginous fluid. The character of the food introduced into the mouth is largely responsible for the type of salivary response.

The secretion of saliva may be accelerated by *chemical*, *psychical*, *mechanical* and *electrical* (galvanic) stimuli. Acid, alkali or salt produces a thin watery saliva. The presence or thought of food results in a psychic secretion in a hungry subject, such saliva being rich in mucin. Salivation may be induced by inserting pebbles into the mouth, but there is little mucin in the copious flow attending mechanical stimulation unless the material is sufficiently gritty to act as an irritant to the mucous membranes. The application of an electric stimulus to the buccal surfaces produces saliva of low specific gravity.

Each salivary gland receives a double nerve supply from the central nervous system. The submaxillary and sublingual glands are supplied by nerve fibers through the facial nerve by way of the chorda tympani and the lingual branch of the fifth nerve. The fiber supplying the parotid gland was originally in the same nucleus, joining the trunk of the glossopharyngeal nerve and leaving it by the tympanic branch, passing through the tympanic plexus, the small superficial petrosal nerve, the otic ganglion and the auriculo-temporalis nerve.

Mastication mixes the food with the salivary secretion. The tongue manipulates the food mass into a *bolus* which later is swallowed. Salivary digestion occurs, not in the mouth, but in the stomach until enzyme activity is halted by penetration of the acid gastric juice into the bolus.

The quantity of saliva secreted by an adult in twenty-four hours usually amounts to 1000 to 1500 cc. (extremes reported: 500 and 2000 cc.). The volume is dependent upon the type of food eaten and upon the individual's response to psychic stimuli. Since saliva contains only about 0.5 per cent solid matter, its specific gravity is low, averaging 1.005. Normal saliva is slightly acid, pH 6.8, if it is collected so as to check the loss of CO_2 to the air; otherwise, it is slightly alkaline, pH 7.2, due to the presence of carbonate and phosphate buffers. Since mastication decreases the acidity of the saliva, a definitely alkaline reaction is encountered during the course

of a meal and subsequently for approximately twenty minutes (Comroe). The acidity of saliva is increased by fermentation of food residues. Mouth washes produce only a fleeting effect upon salivary reaction.

The enzyme, or group of enzymes, found in the saliva is known as *ptyalin*. It consists of *amylase* (starch-splitting), *dextrinase* (dextrin-splitting) and possibly *maltase* (maltose-splitting). Starches, dextrins and glycogen are hydrolyzed to sugars by ptyalin which is unique in that it is secreted in the active state. Raw starch in the natural unruptured grains is practically unaffected by the salivary amylase. Maltose is usually regarded as the end-product of salivary digestion. The production of glucose is a matter of controversy.

Ptyalin is found in about equal amounts in premature and full-term infants. Children have two and a half times and adults five times as much amylolytic power as infants (Hensel, 1933). The amylase activity may be lowered in cachexia and may be increased in patients with peptic ulcers.

Marked variation in the activity of salivary amylase is noted during the day. The ingestion of food is followed by increased activity, the increment being greatest with breakfast and least with the evening meal. There is a slight decline in amylolytic power between breakfast and luncheon, and between luncheon and dinner. Coffee does not diminish the saccharogenic activity of saliva collected after the meal.

Since salivary digestion occurs in the stomach, the time interval is dependent upon the consistency of the food, the distribution of the saliva throughout the bolus and the rapidity with which hydrochloric acid inactivates the ptyalin. Under average conditions it is believed that salivary digestion continues for one-half hour, although low gastric acidity may permit activity for forty-five minutes. The presence of food in the stomach stimulates the flow of gastric juice. The increasing acidity diminishes amylolytic activity. At pH 5 there is marked inhibition of salivary enzymatic action. A trace of free hydrochloric acid (pH 3) irreversibly destroys ptyalin. The effect produced by large amounts of acid fruit juices (*e. g.*, orange, grapefruit) when ingested with a typical high-carbohydrate American breakfast is unknown.

Salivary digestion, obviously, is entirely inadequate for complete hydrolysis of carbohydrate foods. Furthermore, the prevailing universal habit of "bolting" a meal allows for little admixture of saliva with the food. The saliva can best exercise its functions if the mouth is empty when fluid is introduced. The digestive rôle of saliva is probably less vital than its other functions. Not only does it lubricate the food bolus preparatory to swallowing, but by dissolving food particles, saliva secures excitation of the taste buds and so stimulates the entire digestive process.

Since mucin combines with HCl to form a protein hydrochloride which possesses slight acidity compared to the free acid, vigorous

mastication and swallowing of large amounts of saliva may lead to reduction of gastric hyperacidity. By forced mastication and expectoration of saliva, it is possible to remove 400 to 1000 cc. of water from the body. Saliva hastens the clotting of blood, whereas gastric juice containing free HCl causes a delay and prevents the formation of an organized clot. Excessive salivation may be induced to stop bleeding of peptic ulcers.

GASTRIC DIGESTION.

The gastric mucosa is lined with numerous, slightly tortuous, deep indentations. Those glands located in the fundic region are characterized by parietal or border cells which probably elaborate hydrochloric acid. The peptic enzyme is supposedly the product of the "chief cells" which become noticeably shrunken during prolonged gastric stimulation. The cells lining the general surface of the stomach and the ducts manufacture the mucin of gastric juice.

Secretion of gastric juice is achieved through reflex nervous stimulation and local excitants, both chemical and mechanical. The reflex center for gastric secretion is located in the medulla, the efferent fibers reaching the stomach by way of the vagus nerve. Emotional states operate, presumably through the sympathetic nervous system, to inhibit the flow of gastric juice. Psychic or conditioned reflexes are occasioned by olfactory, gustatory and visual stimuli. Substances extracted from meat by boiling water and partially digested proteins induce abundant flow of gastric juice which is independent of nervous stimuli. This local chemical effect is presumably due to formation of the hormone, *gastrin*. Water will excite gastric secretion, distilled water being more effective than tap water, and tap water more than physiologic saline. The stimulation produced by coffee is attributed to purin bases, not to aromatic constituents. A warm decoction of maté leaves (100 cc., 10 per cent) increases the acidity of gastric juice. Ingestion of appetizers and alcoholic beverages before a meal apparently leads to chemical irritation with subsequent augmentation of gastric flow. Oil of peppermint is said to suppress gastric secretion. The presence of most natural protein, fat and carbohydrate foods in the stomach exerts little effect on gastric flow except where pressure upon the stomach walls is appreciated. The fluid intake with a meal is, therefore, of some consequence.

The total amount of gastric juice produced in twenty-four hours is 2 to 3 liters, approximately 700 cc. of juice being required for an ordinary meal. In the resting stomach the average volume (as obtained with a Rehfuß or Twiss tube) varies from 20 to 100 cc. and is designated as residuum or fasting contents. Gastric juice is a slightly viscid fluid varying in specific gravity from 1.001 to 1.010. The outstanding feature of gastric juice is its comparatively high degree of acidity. Although the hydrochloric acid as produced may reach 0.6 per cent, admixture with other fluids diminishes it to 0.2 per cent or less. For adults, pH 1.2 represents extreme

gastric acidity, 1.4 high acidity, 1.6 to 1.8 normal acidity, 2 to 2.4 low acidity and 3 or higher anacidity. In achylia the pH may reach 7. The secretion of HCl in infants is usually incomplete for the first six months. Normal infants on a diet of human milk show an average pH of 3.75, on cow's milk 4.75 to 5.1.

The functions of HCl in the stomach include formation of acid meta-protein which is more readily attacked by gastric protease than is native protein; activation of the gastric enzymes; production of the acid medium required for peptic activity; destruction of the vast majority of bacteria ingested with the food (little antiseptic action is secured with concentrations less than 0.1 per cent HCl); and inversion of cane sugar to a slight extent.

The most important of the gastric enzymes is the proteolytic agent, *pepsin*. The pepsin does not originate as such in the gastric cells, but is formed from its precursor, *pepsinogen*. This mother substance, or *zymogen*, is activated by the hydrochloric acid. Pepsin is a protease attacking native proteins and hydrolyzing them to proteoses and peptones with consequent increase in solubility. A negligible amount of amino-acids may be set free. The chief function of pepsin is to initiate protein digestion. It is active in the pH range 1 to 3 with an optimum at 1.7 to 2; at pH 4 the activity of pepsin practically ceases. An acidity of pH 1.7 is approximately that of 0.02 N HCl.

Two other enzymes occur in the stomach: *rennin* and *gastric lipase*. Like pepsin, rennin requires activation by hydrochloric acid. The function of this enzyme is to prepare milk for digestion by coagulating casein, its characteristic protein. The activity of rennin begins at pH 5, reaches a maximum at pH 6 and is destroyed beyond pH 7. The presence of calcium-ion is requisite for this reaction. It is difficult to determine whether rennin is a separate enzyme or merely another manifestation of peptic activity. Only a trace of lipase occurs in gastric juice; it differs from pancreatic lipase. Since emulsion of fats is not encountered in acid solution, there is little digestion of fat in the stomach. Fat of egg-yolk and milk which is already emulsified may undergo some hydrolysis.

Since the time of the earliest investigators, the question has arisen why the pepsin of the stomach does not digest the stomach wall, which in itself is protein material. The present answer to this question is that there exists an anti-peptic enzyme in the cells of the gastric mucosa which inhibits the action of the pepsin, thereby protecting each individual cell of the stomach wall. This same anti-enzyme is found in the cells of intestinal worms, such as the *Ascaris lumbricoides*. This principle may be extracted by grinding the parasite. A drop of this extract added to a solution of egg-white and pepsin retards digestion indefinitely.

The physical character of the food (*bolus*) after entering the stomach is now changed to a semi-fluid mass (*chyme*) which is capable of being discharged through the pyloric orifice into the duodenum. Chyme is forced intermittently in small amounts into

the intestines so that alkalization promptly occurs. The mechanism whereby the pyloric sphincter is controlled is still a matter of conjecture. Movement of fluid or semi-fluid from the stomach to the duodenum or the reverse (regurgitation is normal during the interdigestive cycles) undoubtedly is a result of simultaneous adjustment of intragastric and intraduodenal pressure, muscle stimulation being secured either chemically or through the nervous system.

INTESTINAL DIGESTION.

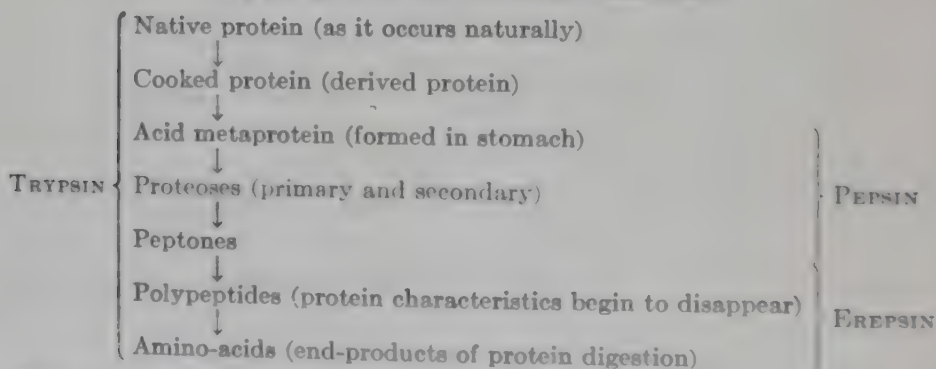
In the duodenum the acid chyme encounters three digestive secretions: pancreatic juice, succus entericus and bile. Although bile is not, strictly interpreted, a digestive juice, it is requisite for intestinal digestion.

Pancreatic Juice.—The external secretion of the pancreas is a colorless, odorless, faintly opalescent, strongly alkaline fluid which foams readily. Its specific gravity is approximately 1.007 with a water content of 98.7 per cent. The daily average secretion of pancreatic juice is about 650 cc. Its function is neutralization and digestion of the acid chyme.

The chief enzymes are *trypsin* (protease), *amyllopsin* (amylase) and *steapsin* (lipase). There is possibly some rennin, erepsin (peptide-splitting), maltase, lactase and invertase. The reaction at which optimum enzymatic efficiency is secured has been placed by various investigators at pH values from 6.8 to 8.2.

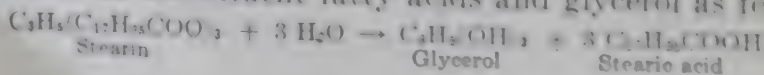
Pancreatic protease is secreted as a zymogen, *trypsinogen*, which is activated by *enterokinase*, an enzyme-like substance found in the intestinal juice. Calcium salts are thought to accelerate tryptic digestion. Although trypsin can attack the original protein molecule, hydrolysis is particularly rapid if digestion has been initiated by pepsin. Erepsin aids in completion of the process.

Hydrolysis of the Protein Molecule.



Pancreatic amylase is very energetic in converting starch to dextrin, whereas salivary amylase has a stronger dextrin-to-maltose-splitting power. The pancreatic enzyme probably does not hydrolyze appreciable amounts of maltose to glucose.

Pancreatic lipase is an ester- and fat-splitting enzyme. It hydrolyzes fat into its constituent fatty acids and glycerol as follows:



Bile accelerates and possibly activates steapsin. In an alkaline medium the fatty acids are converted into soluble sodium salts which are known as soaps. Both bile and soaps emulsify neutral fat, facilitating complete digestion and absorption. In the absence of bile very little fat is digested. Such fat coats proteins and carbohydrates thereby preventing the action of the water-soluble enzymes.

The secretion of pancreatic juice is not entirely due to a nervous reflex, but is dependent upon stimulation secured by a hormone. The intestinal mucosa appears to form a substance (*prosecretin*) which is converted into *secretin* by the acid chyme. On absorption, this hormone is carried by the blood to the pancreatic cells, thereby exciting a flow of enzymatic juice. The pancreatic fluid reaches the intestines through the duct of Wirsung which opens into the duodenum at the ampulla of Vater. Bile is transported from the gall-bladder into the intestine through this same opening, which is controlled by the sphincter of Oddi.

Succus Entericus.—The intestinal juice is a very alkaline, albuminous fluid elaborated by Brunner's glands. Its first function is to render the acid chyme alkaline which destroys the peptic enzyme; its second is to activate trypsinogen. The succus entericus contains enzymes which hydrolyze specific disaccharides. These are named from the substrate: *maltase*, *lactase* and *sucrase* or *invertase*. Additionally, there is a *nuclease* or group of nucleases which split nucleic acids into their component parts. Hydrolysis of nucleic acids, found in the nuclei of all cells, releases carbohydrate (usually glucose), orthophosphoric acid, purins (*e. g.*, adenine, guanine) and pyrimidines (*e. g.*, thymine, cytosine, uracil).

Bile.—The bile is a viscous fluid with a typical, bitter taste and a characteristic odor. It varies in color from a light yellow to a dark green. The specific gravity of the transparent hepatic bile is about 1.010, that of the turbid bladder bile approximately 1.040. According to Jones, hepatic bile varies in pH from 7.4 to 8.5 and gall-bladder bile from pH 5.4 to 6.9, although it is commonly believed that the pH of bile ranges from 8 to 11. It is claimed that the volume of bile amounts to 500 to 1000 cc. *per diem*. It has been estimated that 15 grams of bile are produced per kilogram of body weight per day.

Hepatic bile contains 2.8 to 3 per cent solids, composed chiefly of pigments, bile salts and cholesterol. The color of bile is due to bilirubin (yellowish-brown) and to biliverdin (green). Bilirubin is an acid existing in bile as the sodium, ammonium and calcium salts. The bile salts constitute a mixture, the composition of which has not been well established either in health or in disease. The chief salts are sodium glycocholate and taurocholate. The rôle played by these substances is not thoroughly understood. It is assumed that they function in the digestion and absorption of fats. The bile acids lower surface tension, hence favoring emulsification.

Lipids, particularly cholesterol, which are not soluble in an aqueous medium, dissolve in the presence of bile salts.

Gall-bladder bile varies in its content of solids from 10-20 g. per 100 cc. According to Rous and McMaster, the gall-bladder concentrates pigment more than ten times. There is some evidence that the epithelia of the gall-bladder can absorb fat in a manner comparable with intestinal absorption. Water, however, is probably the main substance absorbed, the function of the gall-bladder being storage and concentration of the bile. There is little or no indication that the gall-bladder secretes a specific fluid.

Although bile is secreted continuously by the liver, it passes into the intestines only at intervals. Fats, meat extracts, proteoses and peptones cause a copious flow of bile. A cholagogue effect is also produced by the bile acids. Diminished excretion is encountered in starvation.

RÉSUMÉ OF ENZYMATIC DIGESTION.

For ready reference the appended schema is introduced in order to present the relationships of the various nutritive food elements and the respective enzymes by which they are attacked. It is to be noted that the physical body contains two complete sets of digestive mechanisms. This fact should prove of paramount importance when instituting artificial feeding.

TABLE 1.—Digestive Enzymes. (Mattice)*

Substrate.	Site of digestion.	Digestive juice.	Enzymes.	Effect of enzyme.
Carbohydrates	Mouth	Saliva	Ptyalin	Soluble starch → maltose
	Small intestine	Pancreatic	Amylopsin	Starch → maltose
		Succus entericus	Maltase	Maltose → glucose
			Invertase	Sucrose → glucose + fructose
			Lactase	Lactose → glucose + galactose
Proteins	Stomach	Gastric	Pepsin	Proteins → peptones
	Small intestine	Pancreatic Succus entericus	Rennin	Casein → insoluble paracasein
			Trypsin	Proteins → amino acids
			Erepsin	Peptones → amino acids
Fats	Stomach	Gastric	Lipase	Slight hydrolysis of emulsified fats
	Small intestine	Pancreatic (bile)	Steapsin	Fats → glycerol + fatty acids

*Chemical Procedures for Clinical Laboratories.

ABSORPTION.

The object of digestion is to disintegrate complex substances, many of them colloids, into simple crystalloids which are capable of diffusion through the intestinal wall into blood and lymph channels whereby they may be transported to the tissues. Undigested or unabsorbed material is propelled to the colon where it acquires fecal characteristics and mingles with additional excretions.

Site of Absorption.—Neither food nor fluid passes through the epithelium of the oral cavity, pharynx, or esophagus. The stomach secretes rather than absorbs water. The gastric mucosa is permeable to alcohol, glucose and amino-acids. It is claimed that condiments, such as mustard, increase the permeability of the stomach wall (Bodansky). The greatest absorption of digested food occurs in the lower part of the duodenum and the upper part of the jejunum.

Substances Absorbed.—The intestinal mucosa forms a selective absorbing surface. Solubility is a prerequisite for diffusion, but solubility is no guarantee of absorption. Intestinal permeability is remarkably "one-sided." Water is absorbed regardless of whether the intestinal contents are hypo-, iso- or hypertonic.

The end-products of *carbohydrate* digestion include several monosaccharides among which glucose predominates. Soluble polysaccharides, being colloidal, do not penetrate the intestinal wall, but the crystalline disaccharides may, at times, enter the blood stream. Lymph shares the increase in sugar concentration noted in blood during absorption of carbohydrate. During the process of absorption, the various sugars probably undergo alteration in their molecular configuration with production of the reactive or physiologic form of glucose which alone may be utilized metabolically. Since the liver extracts glucose from the blood for replenishing its glycogen stores, the sugar content of the portal blood exceeds that in the systemic circulation.

Amino-acids constitute the end-product of simple *protein* hydrolysis and reach both the blood and lymph streams. Although di- and tripeptides probably are transported across the intestinal membranes, higher members of the series normally do not enter the body. Where intestinal permeability is altered, permitting specific proteins, proteoses, or peptones to penetrate the capillaries, severe systemic reactions ensue. Only minute amounts are required for a pronounced effect.

The prosthetic groups in conjugated proteins (*e. g.*, nucleic acid in nucleoprotein) undergo changes but vaguely understood and need not be treated here.

It is generally accepted that fat is hydrolyzed to its constituents before absorption and immediately resynthesized thereafter. Neutral fat is collected as *chyle* in the lacteals and drained into the blood stream through lymphatic channels. Blood serum, therefore, is turbid following absorption of fat. Leukocytes acquire considerable fat from the intestinal mucosa. Fatty acids occur in the blood bound to glycerol, cholesterol and phosphoric acid (that is, as lecithin).

Excretory Residue.—Intestinal contents at the ileocecal valve have the same consistency as chyme. Fecal characteristics are developed in the colon. Feces are composed of intestinal secretions and excretions, bacteria, cellular detritus and food residues. Material secreted into an isolated loop of intestines has a composition similar to feces from normal intestines through which food is passing.

On a normal mixed diet, food residues do not constitute the bulk of excreta.

Cellulose-containing foods are not completely digested in the alimentary tract. Consequently, they yield a larger fecal output than does a concentrated diet. Since a bulky food is not easily chymified, more digestive juice is required. On an average mixed diet, the adult excretes 100 to 150 grams per day, the total solids being 20 to 40 grams. On a vegetable diet, as much as 350 grams (solids 75 grams) may be anticipated.

The pH of the jejunum is 4.0 to 7.6, ileum 5.4 to 8.0 and colon 4.4 to 7.4 (Mann and Bollman). The normal fecal reaction of adults on a mixed diet varies from pH 7.0 to 7.5. Extremes of diet are required to shift the pH appreciably (*e. g.*, a rachitogenic diet consistently elevates the fecal pH). Ordinarily the dietary factor manifests itself chiefly by affecting the motility of the colon. A quart of milk or 35 to 50 grams of lactose may lower the fecal pH and increase the rate of evacuation. Laxatives lead to the excretion of soft, acid stools regardless of the reaction of the cathartic agent.

Unless administered in excessive quantity, soluble carbohydrates do not normally reach the lower intestinal tract in amounts exceeding 50 mg. per gram of dried feces. Volatile fatty acids produced by intestinal bacteria acting on residues of digestible carbohydrates stimulate the activity of the colon. Indigestible carbohydrate (cellulose and pentosans) occurring in vegetable foods have been considered the most important factor in producing regular bowel action. Carbohydrates affect motility by increasing the bulk and by the definite laxative behavior of acetic, butyric and lactic acids (Olmsted *et al.*, 1935).

INTESTINAL PUTREFACTION.

The bacterial population progressively increases from the pylorus to the anus, even in the healthiest subject. In the small intestine, however, the number of bacteria is insignificant compared to the quantity in the colon. Alvarez estimated that the normal individual excretes thirty-three million million bacteria in twenty-four hours. One milligram of feces averages 4000 million bacteria. Normally about one-third of the dry substance of the stool is bacteria.

Two different types of chemical change are initiated by these bacteria: fermentation and putrefaction. *Fermentation*, in its simplest interpretation, includes those reactions affecting the carbohydrates which ultimately result in the production of alcohol and carbon dioxide. *Putrefaction* may be defined as those changes involving proteins which lead to detachment of toxic fragments or molecular disintegration at points other than those attacked by digestive ferments.

Carbohydrates may undergo changes in the intestines leading to the release of gas (carbon dioxide, hydrogen and methane). The

formation of acetic, propionic, lactic and butyric acids increases the motility of the colon, hence their production is frequently encouraged. Oxalic acid is an undesirable, though common, derivative of carbohydrate disintegration in the intestines. Excessive amounts of hydrochloric acid in the stomach free oxalic acid from its insoluble salts in vegetable foods followed by increased uptake by the blood. Defective secretion of hydrochloric acid results in augmented decomposition of carbohydrates in the colon with formation of oxalic acid.

Fat may be subjected to some hydrolytic destruction by bacteria, the so-called butyric acid fermentation. Abundance of fecal fat may be accompanied by an acrid odor.

Undigested and unabsorbed foods are attacked by the bacterial flora of the intestines. Digestive juices themselves are sometimes decomposed by microorganisms. In fact, some of the worst cases of intestinal putrefaction ever encountered have been associated with prolonged fasting in which loss of muscle tone in the intestinal wall and insufficient excretory bulk are important factors. Absorption of toxic protein derivatives over a period of time is generally credited with producing general irritability, malaise, insomnia, loss of appetite, nausea and melancholia. It is difficult to comprehend how absorption can occur from dry fecal masses. Intestinal pressure may be responsible for the symptoms attributed to long-continued absorption of chemical agents.

In the decomposition of amino-acids two distinct paths of destruction are possible. Decarboxylation (removal of CO_2 from the acid group) leaves an amine, sometimes designated as a ptomaine. Some well-known examples are *histamine*, *tryamine* (the active principle of ergot), also *putrescine* and *cadaverine*. Despite popular opinion these amines are not toxic in the intestines and it is incorrect to speak of ptomaine poisoning. The violent seizures of vomiting, diarrhea, low blood-pressure, rapid and feeble pulse, shallow respiration, cold clammy perspiration, complete prostration and shock are due to other toxins than the ptomaines.

The second type of putrefactive process involves removal of the amino group with formation of ammonia. The residual acids are so much less toxic than the amines that 5 to 10 grams of many of them may be ingested without causing noticeable symptoms. Perhaps the best known is benzoic acid which normally is found in the urine to the extent of 0.4 to 0.7 gram every twenty-four hours. It is not excreted as benzoic acid, but rather as a conjugated product with glycine, that is, as hippuric acid. Fragments broken off from the deaminized acids include indol and skatol from tryptophan, phenol and cresol from tyrosine, mercaptans (sulfur alcohols) and hydrogen sulfide from cystine.

The chief detoxicating process is conjugation. Oxidation and reduction may also occur. The most frequently encountered example of conjugation is the conversion of indol to indoxyl followed by union with sulfuric acid to form (as the potassium salt) urinary indican. Various investigators regard renal

excretion of 4 to 20 mg. of indican per day as normal. Skatol or methylindol is less toxic than indol; it is not excreted as a sulfate. The daily urinary output of skatol is normally less than 10 mg. Glycuronic acid (derived from glucose) and sulfuric acid are both used for combination with hydroxyl and phenolic compounds. The liver may employ acetylation (introduction of the CH_3CO group by means of acetic acid) for detoxicating amino compounds. Unfortunately there are no satisfactory laboratory tests for quantitative measurement of intestinal putrefaction.

The subject of intestinal putrefaction has received a great deal of attention by the layman and clinician, but in many instances too much emphasis is placed on the clinical picture without sufficient chemical substantiation. According to the theory of Metchnikoff, a large percentage of human illness may be traced to intestinal putrefaction. Certain advertisers, therefore, proclaim that all of this illness can readily be prevented by the use of various kinds of lactic-acid-forming milks and cultures. Fortunately for us, the body is able to take care of the major portion of these putrefactive products in its own chemical defense laboratory. The first line of defense is the intestinal mucosa itself which, like the skin, is designed to protect the body against chemical and biologic invasion. Toxins which evade the intestinal barriers are carried by the portal blood to the liver which is the best-equipped detoxicating organ of the body. Deleterious chemical agents which reach the systemic circulation are withdrawn by the kidneys and held in that organ until excreted.

Prevention of intestinal putrefaction, however, is of major importance in maintaining full health. Factors which promote bacterial growth and so increase the tendency to intestinal putrefaction include overabundance of protein foods, insufficient gastric acidity, inadequate secretion of digestive juices, faulty absorption and diminished motility of the colon. The rôle played by the carbohydrates and their derivatives has already been considered. Generous amounts of water with meals diminish bacterial activity. An adequate flow of bile decreases putrefaction, since it not only possesses laxative properties but also facilitates digestion, preventing accumulation of food residues.

It is the province of the clinician to provide patients with diets which have been ascertained to induce colonic health through avoidance of intestinal putrefaction. This cannot be achieved without due regard for the multitudinous factors involved. In particular, faddist diets must be eschewed and a regimen developed along safe and sane physiologic and chemical lanes.

SECTION III.

VITAMIN FACTORS IN THE DIET.

JOSEPH BERG, M. D.

Introduction.—In previous editions this section was concerned chiefly with a plea for wider recognition of the importance of low-grade, long-continued, partial vitamin deficiencies as affecting the health of the individual and as a public health problem. The presentation of these views was at that time a matter of importance, for, while the fully developed avitaminoses were well recognized, the idea of chronic partial deficiency as a clinical condition had not been generally accepted. Many conservative authorities maintained that the importance of the vitamins was exaggerated, that deficiencies were unlikely on the ordinary diets of the American people, and that there was no evidence for the need of vitamin supplies greater than those required to prevent the recognized deficiency diseases.

The problem was there presented as follows:

To the clinician, the public health worker, and the student of nutrition, the possible significance of such chronic partial deficiencies overshadows in importance the high-grade avitaminoses. The clinician may seldom see a case of xerophthalmia, beri-beri, scurvy or pellagra, but he is greatly concerned to know whether his patients are suffering from lesser degrees of inadequacy of necessary dietary constituents. The public health worker is even more concerned to know what constitutes an adequate diet. Working with the school child, with families on unemployment relief, or studying the nutrition of the entire population of a district, he can only judge the adequacy of the diet by the incidence of frank malnutrition or outspoken deficiency disease; what he would like to know is whether lesser degrees of inadequacy are to be held responsible for increased morbidity, lowered resistance, or poorer chances for future health. Sound and well-controlled evidence for such nutritional deficiencies is not easily obtained. The laboratory investigator has necessarily centered his attention first upon the problems presented by clear-cut, high-grade deficiency. The effects of partial deficiencies are obscure and often difficult to demonstrate objectively. Clinical study is equally difficult, since human material seldom meets the exacting conditions of a satisfactory nutrition experiment and is not often possible to work for long periods of time with simplified diets of constant composition.

Vitamin research in the future will undoubtedly be directed increasingly toward the study of the chronic partial avitaminoses, and the more exact measurement of human requirements and of the vitamin content of common foods. Sufficient knowledge has already been gathered to demonstrate that partial deficiencies are of decided clinical importance and often responsible for chronic functional disturbances and general depression of health and resistance to disease, but relatively little is known concerning their specific clinical and pathologic effects. There is evidence that such deficiencies are far from uncommon on ordinary diets, and it is certain that they are frequent on therapeutic diets, which seldom are constructed with an eye to nutritional completeness. The physician, in treating one disorder, has thus often been responsible for the development of another.

Since the foregoing was written there has been extensive study of optimal vitamin requirements and the nature of partial deficiency syndromes. The contributions of recent years have supplied a mass of data of various kinds which enable us to approach more closely the answers to these questions. The development of quantitative methods of assay applicable to foods, body tissues and excreta, and the availability of pure preparations of the vitamin substances have made possible studies of vitamin levels in blood and tissues, and of retention and excretion in relation to intake, with corresponding deductions as to the maximum amounts which the body can utilize. More extensive and more accurate assays of foodstuffs have made it possible to assess the adequacy of diets and the effects of high and low intakes, while large-scale diet surveys are providing evidence of the extent of suboptimal nutrition.

These advances in knowledge have resulted in general acceptance of the thesis that optimal vitamin requirements are likely to be much higher than the protective level against deficiency disease, and that chronic subclinical deficiency is an important factor in determining the level of individual and public health. The Council of Foods of the American Medical Association, for example, now accepts as established the fact that suboptimal intake of thiamin is frequent, that this is primarily attributable to the removal of the vitamin-bearing portion of the grains and cereals in milling, and that the general health of the population would be promoted by increasing the intake of this factor. Much work remains to be done, but with present investigations oriented toward that goal we may anticipate rapid progress in the direction of more accurate knowledge of the optimal requirement of each factor and the amount present in foods.

Outstanding among the advances of recent years are the chemical identification and synthesis of a number of the vitamins. Among those now commercially available in pure form are carotene, thiamin, riboflavin, pyridoxin, nicotinic and ascorbic acids, tocopherol, vitamin K and folic acid.

Experimental work with these purified factors has combined with their commercial exploitation to create a new set of problems. Scientist, physician and layman tend more and more to think of the vitamins as pharmaceutical preparations or as chemical entities, unrelated to one another or to the diet. The physician, consequently, administers the tablet or ampoule of concentrate instead of studying the patient's food intake and correcting the diet. The efforts of investigators to identify the specific deficiency effects of each of the known factors and the publicity given to their findings have helped to direct attention away from the fact that in human malnutrition single deficiencies are rare or actually non-existent, and to obscure the part contributed by factors not yet recognized.

In clinical work it is to be remembered that the vitamins frequently occur in groups, that there is evidence of synergisms among them, and that no combination of the known factors in purified

form can replace the natural vitamin-rich foods. A diet can be considered adequate only if care is taken to include sufficient amounts of those foods which have been established as good sources of the recognized vitamins and of accessory factors in general. The purified preparations of single factors should be reserved for those situations in which they are specifically indicated.

LOSS OF VITAMINS IN THE COMMON DIET.

It is still widely believed that the common, "well-balanced," mixed diet, particularly if it contains fruits, green vegetables and salads, is adequately provided with the necessary vitamins. Those who hold this opinion fail to take into consideration the unavoidable loss of vitamins incurred in the preparation and cooking of foods, and the large part which devitaminized foods necessarily play in the modern diet.

Whether of animal or vegetable origin, the natural food of an animal in the wild state is eaten uncooked, whole, and living or recently killed. Modern man gets but a small part of his food in this state, for the development of civilized society has brought with it ever lengthening intervals of time and space between the production of food and its consumption. Natural, fresh foods are in general the more perishable and the more expensive; preservation and storage are economic necessities, and the cheaper foods must supply the needs of the masses. Furthermore, taste, custom and commercial propaganda tend to divert our food habits even further from the animal biologic need.

The greatest part of the world's food is supplied by the cereals, but the processes of milling and cooking deprive most of our cereal foods of their vitamins, especially vitamin B, of which they are the chief natural source. Fruits and vegetables for shipment and storage are picked before ripening, or they are dehydrated, cooked, or otherwise preserved. In modern methods of canning the exclusion of air tends to prevent vitamin loss, but dehydration, storage in air, and home methods of cooking and canning destroy vitamin C. The pasteurization of milk is also destructive to this vitamin. The blanching of vegetables and the discarding of the green outer leaves in favor of the white inner leaves reduces the amount of both vitamin A and vitamin C. In meats, our taste tends to reject the viscera, rich in accessory factors and vitamins, in favor of skeletal muscle, relatively devoid of these substances. And finally, an increasingly large part of the modern diet is occupied by refined foods completely lacking in vitamins; these include white flour, sugar, lard, oil, farina, syrups, and most candies and sweets. Such foods displace from the diet the natural vitamin-containing foods which should normally supply energy and tissue-building materials. Thus selection, taste and custom combine with storage, preservation, refining and cooking to deplete the diet of its normal vitamin content. Probably the greatest single factor is the high degree to which the modern diet makes use of foods prepared from devita-

minized flour; the ubiquitous corner bakery stands as a symbol of corrupted dietary habits.

Langstroth found in his investigation of 501 American dietaries that bread accounted for 16 per cent of the calories of the average diet and butter for 17 per cent, while the low-vitamin foods as a whole furnished 79 per cent of the total calories, the high-vitamin foods only 12 per cent. He found an apparent inverse correlation between the percentage of high-vitamin foods in his patients' diets and the incidence of what he calls the "degenerative" diseases, including chronic circulatory disease, chronic arthritis, chronic gastro-intestinal disease, migraine and diabetes. His treatment included a "corrective" diet in which 70 per cent of the calories were furnished by high-vitamin foods, and he was able to note a considerable degree of improvement in many of his patients.

FACTORS CONDITIONING A RELATIVE VITAMIN DEFICIENCY.

A relative vitamin deficiency may be due to a low-vitamin intake, to defective absorption and utilization, or to an increased requirement. It may be of value to summarize here the conditions which are most frequently responsible for vitamin deficiency.

Low intake, due to—

Inadequate available supplies, as on shipboard, in prisons, asylums and orphanages, on exploring expeditions, in the feeding of armies, in remote or sometimes less remote rural districts and in famine areas.

Devitaminization of foods by storage, preserving methods, refining, milling, cooking and preparation for the table.

Vagaries of taste, preference and habit, including the insane, the psychoneurotic, the eccentric, the food cultists and those who believe too literally commercial food propaganda.

Illness, by way of low total food intake or restricted therapeutic diets.

Anorexia.

Alcoholism with low food intake.

Poverty.

Ignorance of what constitutes an adequate diet, our own ignorance as well as the laity's.

Poor absorption and utilization, due to—

Gastro-intestinal diseases and disorders, including anacidity or achylia, cancer, diarrhea, obstructions, biliary, pancreatic and intestinal fistulas, etc., also, possibly, excessive use of mineral oil.

Increased requirement, due to—

Depleted reserves due to previous inadequate diet.

Pregnancy.

Lactation.

The growing period.

Fevers and infections.

Increased metabolism, caused by hyperthyroidism or increased muscular work.

A high total food intake.

A NORMAL, COMPLETE DIET

The normal diet, complete in all necessary factors, is a simple one, though we cannot yet lay down definite minimal requirements

(AMOUNTS PER DAY)

Food and Nutrition Board, National Research Council

	Calories ¹	Protein grams	Cal- cium grams	Iron mg.	Vitamin A I. U. ²	Thia- mine mg. ³	Ribo- flavin mg. ³	Niacin (Nico- tic acid) mg. ³	Ascorbic acid mg.	Vitamin D I. U.
Man (154 lb., 70 kg.)										
Sedentary.....	2400	70	1.0	12 ⁴	5000	1.2	1.8	12	75	5
Physically active.....	3000	70	1.0	12 ⁴	5000	1.5	1.8	15	75	5
with heavy work.....	4500	70	1.0	12 ⁴	5000	1.8	1.8	18	75	5
Woman (123 lb., 56 kg.)										
Sedentary.....	2000	60	1.0	12	5000	1.1	1.5	10	70	5
Moderately active.....	2400	60	1.0	12	5000	1.2	1.5	12	70	5
Very active.....	3000	60	1.0	12	5000	1.5	1.5	15	70	5
Pregnancy (latter half).....	2400 ⁵	85	1.5	15	6000	1.5	2.5	15	100	400
Lactation.....	3000	100	2.0	15	8000	1.5	3.0	15	150	400
Children up to 12 yrs. ⁷										
Under 1 yr. ⁸	110/2.2 lb. (1 kg.)	3.5/2.2 lb. (1 kg.)	1.0	6	1500	0.4	0.6	4	30	400
1-3 yrs. (27 lb., 12 kg.).....	1200	40	1.0	7	2000	0.6	0.9	6	35	400
4-6 yrs. (42 lb., 19 kg.).....	1600	50	1.0	8	2500	0.8	1.2	8	50	400
7-9 yrs. (58 lb., 26 kg.).....	2000	60	1.0	10	3500	1.0	1.5	10	60	400
10-12 yrs. (78 lb., 35 kg.).....	2500	70	1.2	12	4500	1.2	1.8	12	75	400
Children over 12 yrs. ⁷										
Girls, 13-15 yrs. (108 lb., 49 kg.).....	2600	80	1.3	15	5000	1.3	2.0	13	80	400
16-20 yrs. (122 lb., 55 kg.).....	2400	75	1.0	15	5000	1.2	1.8	12	80	400
Boys, 13-15 yrs. (108 lb., 49 kg.).....	3200	85	1.4	15	5000	1.5	2.0	15	90	400
16-20 yrs. (141 lb., 64 kg.).....	3800	100	1.4	15	6000	1.7	2.5	17	100	400

in terms of specific foods. Such a diet should not provide too large a proportion of calories or bulk in the form of devitaminized foods; the smaller the proportion of white flour, refined cereals, sugar, lard, oil, syrups and processed, preserved and cooked foods, the less danger of vitamin shortage. It should contain liberal amounts of meat, eggs, milk or cheese, fresh fruits, green vegetables, and salads, and butter fat; the amount of starchy vegetables, bread and other cereal products should depend upon the energy requirement, and *these foods should not be allowed to displace the necessary protein, mineral, and vitamin-containing foods*. Such a diet should be adequate as to protein, mineral salts and most of the vitamins, but the inevitable refining and cooking of its cereal foods may leave it sub-optimal as regards B₁ and probably other factors in the B group. The beneficial effect which frequently follows the use of vitamin B supplements supports this view, as do the dietary surveys and studies already mentioned.

It is also questionable whether such a diet furnishes an optimal amount of vitamin D. The advisability of vitamin D supplements in the common diet will be discussed later; we may say here that every individual who does not receive liberal amounts of solar or artificial radiation would probably benefit from such supplementing.

Daily Vitamin Requirements.—Despite an enormous amount of investigation, precise vitamin requirements under a variety of conditions cannot be stated. Even when the protective dosage against gross deficiency disease is known with some accuracy, it is no sure guide to the hypothetical "optimal" requirement—the maximum amount by which the body can use with benefit. The yardstick by which nutritionists measure desirable intake of the various food factors is shown in part on page 47 and more fully on pages 600-601.

THE HIGH-VITAMIN DIET.

The vitamins are not only curative for their specific deficiency diseases; *they are also necessary to maintain normal health and resistance to other diseases*. The *vis medicatrix naturæ* depends upon the maintenance of optimal nutritional conditions, and it should be the aim of the physician to fortify natural resistance as much as possible by ensuring an adequate intake of all necessary factors.

The *high-vitamin diet* has wide application in the treatment of disease, in some conditions for its specific therapeutic effect, in others as a therapeutic adjuvant for increasing resistance and maintaining nutrition. As far as present knowledge goes, an increased vitamin need appears to be present, or an increased intake beneficial, in the following conditions:

In prolonged or wasting illness (tuberculosis, typhoid, chronic infections, anemias, and blood dyscrasias).

In "run-down" conditions, malnutrition, and lowered resistance.

Under conditions involving the growth, development or repair of tissues (pregnancy, lactation, infancy and childhood, convalescence).

In chronic gastro-intestinal disorders (constipation, colitis, diar-

hea, gastric atony, hypochlorhydria, visceroptosis, ulcer, sprue, pellagra).

When the total metabolism or total food intake is increased (high-caloric diet, increased muscular work, hyperthyroidism, fever).

In restricted therapeutic diets (diabetic, obesity, low-residue, ulcer, ketogenic diets).

In some skin diseases.

The following list indicates the *richest food sources of the vitamins*, or use in high-vitamin diets. It is not intended to indicate all the foods in which the various vitamins are found but only those which constitute the best sources of each.

Vitamin A. Butter fat, cod-liver and other fish oils, egg-yolk, green leafy vegetables, prunes, apricots, carrots.

Thiamin (vitamin B₁). Wheat-germ, yeast, whole cereals, nuts, legumes.

Riboflavin (vitamin B₂ or G). Liver, lean meats, milk, vegetables, fruits, eggs, whole cereals, wheat-germ, yeast.

Nicotinic Acid. Yeast, liver, lean meats, fish, milk, green vegetables, wheat-germ.

Ascorbic Acid (Vitamin C). Fruits and vegetables, especially the citrus fruits, new cabbage, peppers, and tomatoes.

Vitamin D. Fish-liver oils, egg-yolk.

Vitamin E. Fresh vegetables, wheat-germ and vegetable oils.

Vitamin K. Hog-liver oil, spinach, kale, cabbage, cauliflower, tomatoes, egg-yolk.

A convenient basic scheme for a high-vitamin diet (to be modified to meet individual needs) follows:

Breakfast:

Well-ripened, fresh fruit, preferably citrus

2 eggs

1 to 2 heaping T. wheat-germ with milk, cream or fruit juice

1 slice whole wheat bread or toast, buttered

1 glass of milk

Lunch:

Tomato or fruit juice

Meat, fish, liver, or cheese

Cooked vegetable or raw vegetable salad

1 slice whole wheat bread, buttered

Ripe, fresh fruit, with or without cream

1 glass of milk

Dinner:

Meat soup

Meat, fish, liver, eggs, or cheese

Cooked green vegetables with butter

Uncooked vegetable salad

1 slice whole wheat bread, buttered

Ripe, fresh fruit, with or without cream

1 glass of milk.

The total caloric intake may be augmented, if desired, by the addition of cereals and starchy vegetables, and by increasing the intake of butter and cream. The diet, as given, furnishes about 150 grams of carbohydrate; in the diabetic diet the bread and milk may be reduced in amount if less carbohydrate is desired, and the caloric intake made up by additional butter, cream and cheese. A vita-

min D supplement (cod-liver oil, haliver oil, viosterol, etc.) should be used, unless adequate solar or artificial radiation is obtained.

VITAMIN ADEQUACY IN THERAPEUTIC DIETS.

Therapeutic diets have too often been constructed with the sole aim of eliminating foods considered harmful, without sufficient thought to the inclusion of all necessary factors. Schroeder and Wittman studied the vitamin content of various therapeutic diets as prescribed for ulcer, gastritis, dyspepsia, pyelitis, nephritis, etc. They found most of these diets low in vitamin C, many deficient in thiamin and riboflavin and fewer deficient in A and D. The general principles laid down for insuring adequate vitamin supply will apply to most of these special diets; only those in which the vitamin intake is particularly likely to be deficient will be specifically treated.

Diabetic and Obesity Diets.—In both these diets the restriction of starchy foods, including whole cereals, legumes, nuts, and milk, markedly reduces the available supply of vitamin B₁ and some other members of the B complex. There is evidence that the constipation, indigestion, asthenia, and lowered resistance so often occurring may be due to the low B-complex intake. Supplementary high vitamin-B foods, such as wheat-germ, should therefore be employed, particularly as the restriction in both diets is of long duration.

The basic diet in both instances should contain generous amounts of protein (meat, eggs, milk or cheese), at least 3 portions of fresh fruit and liberal amounts of green vegetables, salads and butter. The amount of starchy vegetables, bread and other cereal products permitted depends upon carbohydrate tolerance and energy requirement. Milk, cream, butter and cheese are nutritionally valuable and so far as possible should be given preference over the starchy foods as sources of energy. Butter-fat should not be excluded from the obesity diet, but other fats are not required. When the fat intake is restricted, one of the A and D concentrates should be included. Eggs and wheat-germ will supply the other fat-soluble factors.

The High-caloric Diet.—This useful measure in the treatment of tuberculosis, malnutrition, hyperthyroidism, typhoid and chronic wasting diseases, is not always well designed to serve its purpose. The run-down patient who needs the high-caloric diet is often suffering from anorexia or from diminished digestive capacity and tolerance; if not at the start, he is likely to be after a few days' attempted overfeeding. The physician therefore must increase calories without increasing bulk. He meets the situation by concentrating on refined starchy foods, sugars and fats, eliminating to a great extent the green vegetables, fruits and other bulky foods of relatively low-caloric value. Such a diet is likely to be low in vitamin C; furthermore, a high total food intake with increased amounts of carbohydrate involve an additional requirement for vitamin B₁ which is lacking in refined carbohydrates and must be

applied otherwise. The high-caloric diet is better assimilated and better utilized when its vitamin-B₁ content is high. It should therefore include fresh tomato juice or fruit juice for vitamin C, and yeast or wheat-germ to supply the vitamin-B complex; the butter and cream ordinarily given furnish sufficient vitamin A.

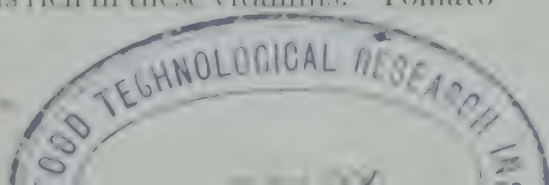
Hyperthyroidism.—Himwich, Goldfarb, and Cowgill have called attention to the increased vitamin B requirement in experimental hyperthyroidism and the ability of vitamin B to prevent loss of weight in this condition when given in sufficient amount. Furthermore, Fischer considers B deficiency to be a contributing factor in the development of goiter, and reports that administration of vitamin B produces histologic changes in the gland resembling those produced by feeding iodized salt. As in the high-caloric diet, the use of supplementary B sources, such as cereal germ or yeast, is advisable.

Wendt has reported a reduction in the vitamin-A content of the blood serum in hyperthyroidism, and increase in weight and lowering of the basal metabolic rate in patients with this disease when given large amounts of vitamin A. Abelin and other authors have found an antagonistic action between vitamin A and thyroxin in experimental animals.

The Low-residue Diet.—The low-residue diet, as usually prescribed, is likely to be low in vitamins by reason of its high content of refined carbohydrates—white flour, cane sugar, lactose, cornstarch, etc.—and its low content of fresh uncooked fruits and vegetables. The diet should therefore include fresh fruit juices and tomato juice, and should be supplemented by bran-free cereal germ or dried yeast, and cod-liver oil.

The Ulcer Diet.—The ulcer diet is generally similar to the low-residue diet, but in the earlier stages it may be undesirable to use the acid fruit juices or tomato juice. During this period, therefore, it is necessary to depend upon raw fresh milk for the vitamin C requirement. But since the C content of even raw milk is not high, and since vitamin C deficiency has been found to increase the incidence of gastric ulcer in experimental animals, the use of ascorbic acid preparations is advisable as a supplement. As soon as possible the fruit juices or tomato juice should be added; they may be neutralized if desired, or buffered by mixture with milk. Well-ripened banana may also be employed as a non-acid source of vitamin C. Experimental evidence (Dalldorf; Sure and Thatcher) showing a correlation between vitamin B₁ deficiency and susceptibility to ulcer formation makes advisable the addition of bran-free cereal germ in order to ensure adequacy of this vitamin. Vitamin D should be supplied by cod-liver oil or a similar supplement.

The Ketogenic Diet.—The ketogenic diet, because of its marked restriction of carbohydrate-containing foods, is low in the water-soluble vitamin-B complex and vitamin C. Wilder has described 2 cases of pellagra developing on this diet and has emphasized the need for supplementing it with foods rich in these vitamins. Tomato



juice, ascorbic acid preparations, and brewer's yeast or cereal germ may be employed for this purpose. Wilder also recommends the addition of 2 or 3 grams of calcium lactate daily to correct the calcium deficiency in this diet.

THE VITAMINS AND THE VITAMIN DEFICIENCIES.

Nomenclature.—The substances called collectively the vitamins differ widely in chemical nature and in physiologic function. They have the one common characteristic of being non-mineral substances required in relatively small amounts for the maintenance of normal structure and function of the body tissues. Their designation by letters dates back to the time when these unidentified dietary factors could be described only as fat-soluble A, water-soluble B, and the like. This notation is being replaced by appropriate chemical terms, as carotene and thiamin; these, in time, will supplant the alphabetic terminology. Names based on deficiency symptoms, as antiscorbutic, antirachitic vitamin, etc., with their implications of disease and cure, are undesirable for normal food substances. Since successive stages of separation and identification have left behind many terms no longer in use, a glossary is appended (p. 834).

VITAMIN A.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Vitamin A is a primary alcohol, $C_{20}H_{23}OH$, derived from carotene and the related carotinoid pigments of plants. Practically colorless, it is soluble in oils and fats, insoluble in water. It is unaffected by dilute acids and alkalies. Vitamin A is fairly stable to heat in the absence of oxygen, but is destroyed by oxidation, especially at high temperatures. Oxidation is slow at room temperature. The vitamin is inactivated by exposure to ultra-violet irradiation and by rancidity of its fatty vehicle.

The carotinoid pigments vary in their vitamin-A values, the most active being beta-carotene. This is a crystallizable, oil-soluble orange-red pigment which, like vitamin A, is oxidized and destroyed by air, especially at high temperatures. Chlorophyll appears to have a protective action against this destruction. Carotene is readily converted into vitamin A by the normal liver; thus under normal conditions availability of carotene in the diet is equivalent to availability of vitamin A. In general, the carotinoids are the plant sources of vitamin A, while both carotene and vitamin A are found in animal sources, such as butter-fat, egg-yolk, liver and fish-liver oil.

Another substance having Vitamin A activity is known, designated as Vitamin A_2 . It is found chiefly in the livers of fresh water fish and differs from Vitamin A_1 in that its structure contains one additional double bond and two less hydrogen atoms. Both these substances may properly be referred to as Vitamin A, although Vitamin A_2 is apparently less active physiologically than Vitamin A_1 . When we speak simply of Vitamin A, we are referring to Vitamin A_1 , the better known of these two substances.

Absorption and Storage.—Vitamin A occurs in natural oils and fats as an ester. Commercial preparations may contain the free alcohol which apparently is esterified before absorption by way of the lymphatics. The vitamin is also transported and stored as a fatty acid ester. The hydrocarbon carotene cannot enter into such combination and thus is less absorbable. Bile is essential for utilization of carotene, a bile acid derivative probably being formed. The presence of bile is advantageous for the absorption of vitamin A but not altogether necessary. Since they are fat-soluble, both carotene and vitamin A are poorly absorbed from the intestine whenever fat digestion and absorption are defective. Absorption of vitamin A reaches a maximum three to five hours after administration whereas carotene requires six to seven hours.

The use of mineral oil laxatives, in which carotene and vitamin A are soluble, tends to interfere with their absorption. Dutcher *et al.* (1934) reported that liquid petrolatum inhibited the absorption of carotene but not vitamin A. Anderson (1939) found up to 25 per cent of the ingested vitamin in the excreta. Since vitamin A was eliminated in very small amounts or not at all in control experiments using a purgative, it was concluded that the vitamin loss with mineral oil was not attributable to acceleration in intestinal evacuation. Anderson advises against the prolonged use of mineral oil except in conjunction with a diet rich in vitamin A; the oil should not be given near meals. It is generally assumed that diarrhea may lead to loss of much of the ingested vitamin A.

It is interesting to note, however, that Hoffman and Dyniewicz (1945) reported that the administration of alumina gel in therapeutic doses did not appreciably affect the absorption of Vitamin A.

Carotene is less readily absorbed than vitamin A. Apparently the molecule is not split in the intestinal tract. Even after five to six hours of existence in the liver, there is little conversion into active vitamin A. The process, therefore, requires time.

The liver is the chief storage depot of vitamin A and may contain a large reserve of this factor. The amount present in the liver of the new-born child is small and not appreciably affected by dietary measures during pregnancy. With advancing age the liver reserve tends to build up; Bessey and Wolbach (1939) found 200 to 400 I.U. per gram in the well-nourished adult, or 10 to 20 mg. per gram of liver. Crimm studied the vitamin-A content of the liver and found wide variations. Children averaged 80 I.U. per gram. (For the first two to three years of life the amount of vitamin A found in the liver is small.) The average value in adult subjects who had died suddenly was 331 I.U. per gram. Four cases of pulmonary tuberculosis on high-vitamin diets averaged 523 I.U. One case which had received prolonged intensive vitamin-A therapy showed 3359 I.U. per gram.

The length of time required for depletion of the liver is presumably a matter of weeks or months. Fevers and infections reduce the vitamin A contained in the tissues. This depletion appears to be

especially rapid in infants since their reserves are small. There is evidence that the conversion of carotene into vitamin A may be deficient in diseases of the liver, and the storage of both may similarly be impaired when this organ is damaged. Histologic studies also suggest that vitamin A in the Kupffer cells may not be generally available due to block in the transmission mechanism (Popper, 1940).

Oral administration of vitamin A results in rapid repletion of liver stores under normal conditions. Other routes are less effective since esterification is essential to utilization and the intestinal wall is particularly effective in this regard. In the early stages of deficiency the oral route gives best results but in advanced deficiency epithelial changes in the alimentary tract may affect absorption.

Numerous investigators have found evidence that both hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism tend to reduce the vitamin-A reserves. Abelin, Wendt, and others have reported an antagonism between thyroxin and vitamin A, administration of the vitamin tending to reduce the metabolic rate and loss of weight in experimental hyperthyroidism produced by feeding thyroxin, and to have a similar effect on patients with Graves' disease. Likewise, administration of thyroxin diminished the reserves of carotene and vitamin A. The tissue levels of vitamin A are low in myxedema and cretinism, and in experimental animals deprived of the thyroid gland there is decreased ability to convert carotene into vitamin A (Fasold and Heidemann, 1933-1934). Low vitamin-A concentrations have been reported in blood serum in Paget's disease.

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Deficiency of vitamin A retards growth and development in experimental animals. While deficiency probably tends to have a similar effect in children, there is no reason to suppose that vitamin A is a specific growth factor or that the retardation is different in nature from that which occurs when any other essential nutritive factor is inadequately supplied. The growth of bone ceases with establishment of vitamin-A deficiency, but not so the nervous system. Neurologic lesions result from this unequal growth (Wolbach and Bessey, 1940) due to mechanical damage to brain, spinal cord and nerve roots.

Deficiency of vitamin A seems to exert its effects chiefly upon the epithelial tissues. The normal mucosa of the respiratory and urinary tracts and of the eyes is transformed into stratified, cornified epithelium, and with this change there is lowered resistance to infection. The increased susceptibility to respiratory, urinary and possibly other infections which occurs in vitamin-A deficiency seems to be due to impairment of the normal epithelial barrier to invading organisms. It can be overcome by an adequate supply of the vitamin and in this sense vitamin A is "anti-infective," but there is no evidence that the use of vitamin A supplements can increase protection against infections when the epithelial surfaces are unimpaired by vitamin-A deficiency. The amount of vitamin A present in well-balanced diets appears adequate to maintain this type of resistance at its maximum.

In the eye, marked deficiency of vitamin A affects the conjunctiva and cornea, producing the condition known as xerophthalmia. In the skin a condition of xerosis with diminished secretion may occur, and in adolescents and adults this may appear as a follicular or papular dermatosis (phrynoderma). Marked degrees of vitamin-A deficiency may produce similar metaplastic changes in the epithelium of the urinary tract, including the bladder, renal pelvis and possibly the tubules. Whether or not these changes predispose to calculus formation is a question which is still undecided, but individuals susceptible to renal lithiasis should be assured a high intake of vitamin A. It has been reported that the tendency to form stones is increased when A deficiency is accompanied by defects of calcium and phosphorus metabolism. It is obvious also that an adequate vitamin-A intake should be assured to patients suffering from chronic or recurrent infections of the urinary tract.

It is now well established that the photosensitive substance present in the retinal end-organs which enables them to react to light is a pigment formed by the combination of vitamin A with a protein. This substance, rhodopsin or visual purple, is the photo-active element in the rods. It is thought that a related pigment may be carried by the cones. When this pigment is exposed to light it is bleached and chemically altered, apparently with the liberation of vitamin A. Wald found 0.2 to 0.3 gamma of vitamin A in the light-adapted retina and only traces in the dark-adapted retina. The maintenance of an optimal amount of visual purple in the rods depends upon the availability of vitamin A. Even slight degrees of A deficiency appear to affect retinal function which is manifest by diminished ability to see clearly in low intensities of illumination (elevated light threshold), and also slowness in recovering visual acuity after the retina has been bleached by exposure to a bright light. The first effect is responsible for the clinical condition known as hemeralopia or night blindness, but even persons unaware of inability to see well in relative darkness may be much slower than normal in recovering vision after exposure to a bright light, such as the glare of an automobile headlight.

Detection of Vitamin-A Deficiency.—Slow recovery from bleaching and defective adaptation to darkness are the most delicate indices of vitamin-A deficiency at present available. In recent years they have been made the basis of tests for clinical vitamin-A deficiency and a number of photometers have been developed for testing these functions. The principle employed is that of exposing the eyes to a definite bright light for a fixed period of time to bleach the retina and then measuring the amount of illumination required to distinguish a test object at intervals during the period of recovery or determining the time required for recovery of vision at an arbitrary degree of reduced illumination. In the presence of deficiency, recovery is both slow and incomplete. While the test is undoubtedly valuable, there has been a tendency to overestimate its reliability and specificity. To be reliable an exacting technic must be followed and all other possible causes of diminished visual func-

tion excluded. These may include various diseases of the eye, visual defects, riboflavin deficiency, and the effect of neurotoxins such as lead. Thomson and his co-workers (1939) made an extensive study of the test and concluded from their results that neither the rate of dark-adaptation nor the light threshold of the fully dark-adapted eye has a close correlation with the vitamin-A intake in the diet. It follows that impairment of these functions as shown by the photometric test can be taken to signify vitamin-A deficiency only when subsequent administration of therapeutic doses of the vitamin results in definite and marked improvement in the test.

Pett (1940) has observed unaccountably short recovery times (indicating high blood levels of vitamin A) the day following the ingestion of alcohol. Clausen previously had found alcohol to mobilize this vitamin from tissue stores in blood tests upon dogs.

Jeans and Zentmire performed photometric tests on 231 children from a hospital service in Iowa. They found 45 definitely sub-normal; 21 of these were treated with a satisfactory diet plus cod-liver oil and all regained normal adaptation in an average period of twelve days. They concluded that partial degrees of A deficiency are of frequent occurrence.

Wald found visual sensitivity to decrease within twenty-four hours on a vitamin-deficient diet. It could be cured, however, in so short a time as twenty minutes with a single large dose of vitamin A or carotene.

Wise and Schettler (1938) reported that eye-strain was relieved and the efficiency of color matching increased 75 per cent by the ingestion of carotene in oil. The Westinghouse Electrical Manufacturing Company provided carotene in oil for its employees who were photometrically deficient. During a twenty-five-months' experiment (1939) there was marked reduction in rejects due to off-color parts and the results were taken as evidence of relief of eye-strain under factory conditions. It may be concluded that persons whose occupation requires a high degree of visual acuity, of dark-adaptation, or of exposure to brilliant light should be assured an abundant supply of vitamin A.

A chemical method for determination of plasma Vitamin A consists in the production of a deep blue color when Vitamin A or Carotene react with a solution of antimony trichloride in chloroform (Carr-Price Reaction). The result obtained from such determination represents the sum total of both carotenoids and Vitamin A in the plasma. Carotenoids must obviously be separately determined at the same time in order that we may know how much Vitamin A is actually present. A high plasma Vitamin A level may be taken to indicate good Vitamin A nutrition provided one remembers that the plasma Vitamin A level is elevated in those conditions in which blood lipids are increased. Plasma Vitamin A

determinations are probably of more value for survey purposes than in individual cases.

The use of a Vitamin A tolerance test has been described by Ruch, Brunsting and Osterberg (1946) in certain cases of dermatologic disorders. They determined the concentration of Vitamin A in the serum, after the patient had fasted for twelve hours and at four and six hours respectively, after the oral administration of a massive dose of the Vitamin. In cases of keratosis follicularis and congenital dyskeratosis, the test disclosed an abnormally flat curve.

Carotene Content of Blood Plasma.—With the Connor method (1928) the normal has been regarded as varying from “negative” to 0.1 mg. per cent except for persons on a high-pigment diet. In measuring the yellow color of the serum both the carotene of vegetables and the xanthophyll of eggs are encountered. Since the color equivalence is not the same, the results are frequently expressed in “units” which are arbitrary. Connor regards the empirical potassium dichromate standard (0.02 per cent) as corresponding to 0.1 mg. per cent carotene or 100 “units” whereas Clausen and McCoord (1938) compute this standard at 0.137 and 0.146 mg. respectively for carotene and xanthophyll. As a consequence, the Clausen values are much higher than the Connor figures. The former reports normal values at 75 to 100 “units” with a decrease to 50 “units” in the course of a week on diets free from pigmented vegetables, eggs, butter and cream.

Carotinemia.—Under certain little understood conditions, the blood plasma may show an increase in carotinoids sufficient to stain certain tissues. In the skin the yellow color is particularly marked on the soles and the palms. The degree of pigmentation is not necessarily proportional to the plasma concentration but when this rises to levels exceeding 200 “units” xanthosis cutis is often manifested (Clausen). The scleræ and urine are not abnormally colored as in jaundice.

Excessive ingestion of certain of the pigmented vegetables is often the determining factor in carotinemia, but inability to dispose of small quantities of carotene may be more important. Reduction of dietary pigments may lower the serum carotene rapidly, although the skin discoloration may persist for some time thereafter. If the condition develops on a normal intake of carotinoids, response is less prompt following a reduced intake.

Carotinemia is not infrequent in diabetes, where a high vegetable intake may or may not play a part in its development. It is not proportional to the severity of the diabetes (although contrary opinion is held) nor is it influenced by insulin or dietary control of the blood sugar level. Its significance is not clear. It has been

reported that plasma concentrations of carotene and vitamin A tend to follow the level of plasma lipids; this may explain the elevation found so frequently in diabetes.

There is evidence that some diabetics are unable to convert carotene into vitamin A. Poor light adaptation is common and does not respond to carotene therapy whereas the fish-liver oils may normalize the condition promptly.

The following tentative conclusions were reached by the Committee on Nutritional Problems (W. H. Eddy, Chairman, 1939):

Blood carotene is lower in concentration and less variable than vitamin A.

There is no constant ratio between carotene and vitamin A; a low level of active vitamin does not necessarily imply a diminished carotene content and *vice versa*.

Ingestion of fat is followed by more immediate response in vitamin A than in carotene.

Single determinations are not reliable for establishing vitamin A saturation.

Requirement.—The **International Unit**, identical with the U.S.P. unit, is equivalent to 0.0006 mg. of pure β -carotene. This unit also defines vitamin-A activity. Cod-liver oil, for example, rated at 600 U.S.P. units of vitamin A per gram contains the equivalent of 0.36 mg. of β -carotene per gram.

The Nutrition Board of the National Research Council recommends a daily allowance of 5,000 I. U. for adults of average weight regardless of their type of employment. In pregnancy, however, 6,000 units is recommended and 8,000 during lactation. Growing children should receive from 2,000 to 4,500 units daily, while for those under one year of age, 1,500 units are probably sufficient.

In fevers, acute infections and chronic or wasting diseases, ample amounts should be supplied, probably exceeding 10,000 units daily. In hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism similar levels of intake are advisable. No harm can come from liberal supplements and it is better to insure an adequate supply when conditions suggest an increased need, as in the presence of diarrhea. Brown (1940) has suggested that the therapeutic dose be 20,000 to 50,000 units daily *per os*.

It has been recommended that vitamin A or carotene be supplemented with bile salts when biliary obstruction may interfere with absorption, as in catarrhal jaundice. In liver disease, deficiency of this vitamin does not respond to the usual amounts in the diet (Jeghers, 1937) and warrants the use of large doses parenterally.

Sources and Administration.—Carotene and xanthophyll are responsible for much of the yellow color in plants. Green pigments may mask carotinoids; chlorophyll itself provides no vitamin A. In general, provitamin A is present in proportion to the depth of color in plant foods. Yellow vegetables, therefore, are superior to the corresponding white varieties insofar as vitamin A is concerned.

likewise, dried green peas are a better source than the yellow variety. Carrots, sweet potatoes, and pumpkin rate highest among the yellow vegetables, but yellow turnips are a poor source of vitamin A. Rutabagas contain considerably more of this vitamin but much less than sweet potatoes. Broccoli, kale, and parsley are highest among the green vegetables; turnip greens are a rich source. Bleached vegetables (lettuce, cabbage, asparagus and celery) are relatively poor, as compared with the green forms. Cauliflower itself is low in the vitamin although its leaves are rich. It should be stressed that vitamin A occurs in plants only in the form of pigments capable of conversion into it.

Among animal sources, fish-liver oils rank highest; they are rich in vitamin A and relatively low in carotene. Shark-liver oil is outstanding in its A content. Salmon-liver oil also has been utilized in preparing potent vitamin-A concentrates. Peanut and sesame oil lack vitamin A. Egg-yolk and butter-fat (milk, cream, butter, cheese) are excellent sources; their color is of limited value in judging their vitamin-A potency since both the pigment carotene and the colorless vitamin occur in variable proportions. One quart of milk contains sufficient vitamin A on the average to meet the daily minimum vitamin requirement of an adult. Cow's milk contains only one-tenth to one-fourth the vitamin-A content of human milk. For supplementing the diet, when this is indicated, fish-liver oils are preferable to purified carotene or purified vitamin-A preparations. Cod-liver oil has stood the test of time and experience as an effective source of fat-soluble accessory factors. While the more recent introduction of haliver oil and other fish oils has furnished sources richer in vitamin A than cod-liver oil, with a consequently smaller daily dose, it should not be taken for granted that these preparations are nutritionally equivalent to the larger doses of cod-liver oil. These oils contain numerous non-saponifiable lipids and sterols which may be metabolically useful and we are not justified in assuming that their value as dietary supplements is due solely to their content of vitamin A and vitamin D. Wherever possible, therefore, cod-liver oil should be looked upon as the supplement of choice. According to Yudkin 1 or 2 teaspoons daily of standard cod-liver oil will protect a child against vitamin-A deficiency.

THE VITAMIN B COMPLEX.

Early attempts to identify the beri-beri-preventive factor showed that it could be extracted from its food sources by water and dilute alcohol. These crude extracts were found, in experimental animals, not only to prevent polyneuritis but also to prevent growth retardation and dermatitis produced by certain defective diets. The dietary factor thus identified was termed *water-soluble B* and was at first presumed to be a single substance.

Further study revealed that more than one factor was involved, and recent years have seen the identification of numerous components of the vitamin-B complex. It is probable that still further

factors remain to be separated and identified. Those at present recognized are: Thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, pyridoxine, pantothenic acid, biotin, folic acid, choline, inositol and para-aminobenzoic acid. Of these, thiamin, riboflavin, nicotinic acid, vitamin B₆ or pyridoxin, and pantothenic acid have been established as necessary in human nutrition and their deficiency effects studied.

Although the members of the B complex are more or less unrelated chemically, their consideration as a group is justified since they not only tend to occur together in foodstuffs but also are closely related in function. During the years when the members of the vitamin-B complex were being studied from the nutritional point of view, other investigators were elucidating the enzyme systems concerned in cellular respiration. The first important identification was that of *flavin*, a substance discovered to occur in foods containing riboflavin, and subsequently proved to be responsible for its activity. Further work on the respiratory enzymes and greater fractionation of the B complex have shown that those factors so far identified all belong in the series of these enzymes. Thiamin, riboflavin, nicotinamide, and vitamin B₆ are essential components in the chain of enzymes which enable foodstuffs to be broken down step by step within the cell. It is possible that the other members of the B complex will be found to be similarly related.

The identification, synthesis and study of the components of the B complex has written new chapters in the physiology of nutrition. So much has been learned about thiamin, riboflavin, nicotinic acid and, lately, vitamin B₆ that we now think of them as separate entities rather than as a group. From the clinical point of view this is probably unfortunate. Their close relationship in nature means that a dietary deficiency of one is very likely to be accompanied by deficiency of the others, and their functional relationship suggests that it may be wiser to think of the complex as a unit. It should also be kept in mind that the incomplete state of our knowledge concerning the other components of the complex does not warrant our dismissing them as nutritionally unimportant. Eddy and Dimick have shown that combinations of the known members of the B complex fail in experimental animals to produce the normal growth and development obtained with the entire B complex as found in rice bran filtrate. What this means in human nutritional problems is that *foods which are rich sources of the entire complex are preferable to concentrates or extracts, and that crude concentrates are more desirable than the purified or synthesized factors* as dietary supplements. Furthermore, Elvehjem has pointed out the necessity for fat in the diet if the maximum response to the water-soluble B complex is to be obtained.

Thiamin.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Thiamin chloride is a colorless, crystalline substance, $C_{12}H_{17}ON_4SCl$, characterized by a pleasant odor, marked solubility in water, slight solubility in alcohol

and insolubility in oils. Since it is readily adsorbed, clarification of liquid foods by filtration through fuller's earth, charcoal, and the like may result in appreciable loss of this vitamin. It is decomposed by sulfites; thus the sulfuring of fruit lowers its thiamin content. Thiamin is destroyed at high temperatures; this destruction is hastened by an alkaline medium and retarded by an acid one. When soda is used in cooking, the combination of heat and alkali is particularly destructive to thiamin. Since it is highly soluble in water, it is readily extracted when fruits and vegetables are boiled, and is lost when the cooking water is discarded. The loss of activity due to cooking processes, however, is sometimes remarkably small. This is attributed to the existence of the stable pyrophosphoric ester of thiamin in many foods. Since whole cereals constitute an important natural source of thiamin, it is worth noting that the cooking of these cereals does not seriously lessen their B_1 potency. Neither is there much loss in the baking of breads or biscuits.

According to Munsell freezing appears to preserve the vitamin content of foods. Thiamin, however, is more readily extracted in the cooking of frozen foods than with untreated foods. It cannot be too strongly stressed that foods rated as good sources of thiamin in the natural state may be practically valueless as served, due to such losses.

Absorption and Storage.—Thiamin is readily absorbed from food-stuffs by the normal gastro-intestinal tract, and there would seem to be little justification for parenteral administration except when large doses and rapid action are necessary, or when absorption is interfered with by diarrhea, vomiting, or related disorders. Some investigators, however, suggest that the parenteral route may, at times, be more effective but the question cannot be considered as settled. Since thiamin is not as effectively stored in the body as vitamin B_{12} , its reserves are much more quickly exhausted. (Rats on a thiamin deficient ration suffer complete depletion of the body reserves in fourteen days.) According to Cowgill the main storage depots are the liver, heart, and kidneys. The proportionate distribution is given by Brodie and MacLeod as: liver 10, heart 9, kidney 5, voluntary muscle 1, brain 0.33; blood, spleen and lungs traces.

It is necessary that the daily diet be adequate in its thiamin content since the reserves are not sufficient to compensate for dietary deficiency for more than a few days.

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Thiamin functions in the body as the pyrophosphate (cocarboxylase) in the metabolism of carbohydrate; specifically, the metabolism of pyruvic acid. When the tissues are deficient in this substance, the oxidation and utilization of carbohydrate are interfered with. The effect of thiamin deficiency upon the nervous tissues may be due to their sensitiveness to any deficiency in carbohydrate utilization, or to a possible toxic effect produced by the accumulation of partially oxidized carbohydrate in the form of pyruvic acid and lactic acid. The effect of defi-

ciency upon other tissues may be a direct effect of similar nature, or it may be due to impaired function of their innervation.

Clinically, deficiency of thiamin appears to affect chiefly the gastro-intestinal tract and the nervous system, and it may be regarded as established that the normal health and functioning of these tissues requires an adequate supply of this substance. It is possible that the gastro-intestinal disturbance may be secondary to primary involvement of the intrinsic nerve plexuses, but there is also evidence that loss of smooth muscle tone and degenerative changes in the mucosa may be primary effects of thiamin deficiency.

Marked vitamin B₁ deficiency results in polyneuritis (beri-beri), a disease characterized by sensory and motor disturbances, particularly of the lower extremities, myocardial weakness, muscular weakness and atrophy, and sometimes edema. *Chronic low-grade deficiency* is more obscure in its manifestations, but is now generally recognized to be of considerable clinical importance. The picture of an individual suffering from such a deficiency may include a general depression of neuromuscular tone and vigor; digestive disturbances which may take the form of subnormal appetite or digestive capacity, gastric atony, constipation, or more serious conditions, such as ulcer and colitis; lowered resistance to infections; and, perhaps less frequently, anemia and neuritis. In thiamin deficiency the neuritis is always bilateral.

Williams, Mason, Wilder and Smith have recently (1940) reported observations on experimental thiamin deficiency in a group of physically healthy women which confirm and extend the foregoing views. They found that pure thiamin deficiency failed to produce the complete clinical picture of beri-beri; in no case did they find edema, cardiac dilatation, or the typical neuritic pain. In the early stages of deficiency the chief symptoms were fatigue, anorexia and constipation. In the later stages all subjects developed marked weakness, nausea and vomiting, loss of weight, apathy and lethargy with marked reduction in the ability to perform physical work and in mental alertness, concentration and memory. They all complained of backache and soreness of the muscles, and there was usually tenderness of the calves. Other symptoms of nerve involvement were sensations of cold and heat, burning of the soles, numbness of the legs, depressed tendon reflexes, and mental depression, but these symptoms were not constant. The effect upon the circulation was shown by palpitation and dyspnea on exertion, with bradycardia at rest and tachycardia on exertion, and by lowered blood-pressure. Some patients also showed diminution in the voltage of the T-wave of the electrocardiogram and impairment in quality of the heart sounds. Muscular atony and weakness, and fatigue of the ocular muscles occurred. Photophobia and headache were also noted. Studies showed diminished gastro-intestinal motility and diminished gastric acidity in all patients. The glucose tolerance curves in three or four patients showed an increase in height and delayed return to normal, indicating impaired ability to demobilize ingested sugar. Other effects

are dizziness, headache, abdominal distention and insomnia. No anemia occurred, there was no cheilosis or reddening of the skin or tongue, and no edema. The plasma proteins, calcium, phosphorus and the size of the heart were unaffected. Confirmation of the cause of these symptoms was furnished by treatment with pure thiamin chloride which resulted in return to normal in all cases. It is probable that their symptoms would have been diagnosed as neurasthenia or chronic nervous exhaustion had the diet (polished rice, yam, yucca, cornstarch, sugar, white bread, butter, cottage and American cream cheese, egg-white, cocoa, tea, and white raisins) been known.

Conditions attributed in the literature to subacute and chronic thiamin or B complex deficiency include anorexia (Cowgill; Hoobler *et al.*), gastric atony (Cowgill; Rowlands), gastric ulcer (Dalldorf; Sure and Thatcher), atony of the intestine with depression of peristalsis, constipation, degenerative changes in the mucosa and in Meibach's plexus (Rowlands), malnutrition (Morgan and Barry; Marks), asthenia and lowered resistance (Marks), retardation of growth and development in the young (Hoobler; Sure; Morgan and Barry; Bloxson), nervousness and irritability in children (Bloxson), diminution in learning ability (Maurer and Loh Seng Tsai), deficient lactation (Sure and Smith), changes in the thyroid (Fischer), myalgia (McClendon), cramps and pains in the lower extremities, and the polyneuritis of pregnancy and alcoholism.

Some of these deficiency effects are no doubt caused by multiple deficiencies of the vitamin-B complex. It is not well understood, for example, to what degree the gastro-intestinal disturbances are due to thiamin deficiency and to what extent to other factors. Clinical studies have shown that many patients with digestive disorders and with constipation are improved by the use of diets higher in vitamin B complex, but the use of pure thiamin as a supplement seems to be less effective in many instances than the cruder preparations containing other factors of the B complex. It is possible that these factors supplement one another in their action and are more effective when given together. In spite of the large amount of work and observation which has been carried out with pure thiamin preparations, it is not yet possible to state that this factor alone affects any of the symptoms except those due to degenerative neuritis.

Clinical Estimation of Deficiency—Since thiamin, riboflavin and niacin are so closely related in the B vitamin complex, it has been found feasible to determine deficiency estimations of these substances as a group and will be here so considered. The amounts of these vitamins excreted by the kidneys are related to their intake and tissue "saturation." It is therefore possible to derive some estimate of an individual's vitamin B status by determining the amounts of thiamin, riboflavin and niacin excreted into the urine after a twelve hour fasting period. It has been found that any excess of vitamin B ingested with a meal is usually excreted within

eight hours. If, therefore, the individual is asked to fast for twelve hours and then submits a specimen of urine collected during the thirteenth hour, the quantities of thiamin, riboflavin and niacin per 100 cc. determined in this sample may be taken as a guide to the body stores of the vitamins. A person with normal vitamin B saturation will excrete in excess of 20 gammas thiamin, 50 gammas riboflavin and 400 gammas niacin per 100 cc.

It is also possible in the case of riboflavin and thiamin to perform four hour "urinary load tests". These are done by injecting a given amount of the pure material after which the amount excreted in four hours is determined. It is supposed that if an individual's tissues are poorly saturated with the substance under investigation, that more of this substance will be absorbed and retained in the body than when the opposite is the case; the less the urinary output, therefore, the greater the deficiency and *visa versa*.

Other methods employed in the determination of thiamin deficiency include pyruvic acid determinations, either alone or in conjunction with blood lactic acid as well as estimation of blood cocarboxylase and muscle biopsy.

Requirement.—The normal requirement of thiamin appears to be proportional to the total metabolism or total food intake rather than to body weight. Thus, the child requires more in proportion to its size than the adult. Vigorous physical activity or overfeeding increases the thiamin requirement. It is also affected by the relationship between fat and non-fat calories in the diet, increase in the proportion of fat decreasing the need of thiamin. Alcohol, like carbohydrate, increases the body's demand for vitamin B₁. Infections, fevers and other processes which stimulate oxidation correspondingly increase the vitamin requirement.

Cowgill (1935) was the pioneer in expressing mathematically the relation between caloric intake, body weight and B₁ requirement.

His revised formula is:

$$\text{Thiamin need in I.U.} = 0.00426 \times \text{body wt. in kilos} \times \text{caloric intake}$$

Williams and Spies (1938) calculate the thiamin requirement on the basis of the non-fat calories of the diet. When the quotient *thiamin: non-fat calories* is less than 0.3 the diet is likely to produce beri-beri.

It must be emphasized that both of these formulas are designed to express the amount of thiamin required to prevent the development of beri-beri. They do not indicate the optimal thiamin intake.

A number of investigators have reported on the basis of animal experimentation that the lactating mother requires from 2 to 5 times the amount necessary for her own needs if she is to supply enough vitamin B₁ in her milk to meet the full requirement of her offspring. It has been found that the tissue stores of thiamin become depleted during pregnancy, the vitamin accumulating in the mammary glands and the embryo. This depletion appears to be responsible for the development of maternal beri-beri, frequent in the Orient, and has been shown to be the cause of pregnancy polyneuritis as it

occurs in America. Numerous clinical reports have demonstrated the beneficial effect of an increased vitamin-B intake in pregnancy and lactation, and a decreased incidence of pregnancy toxemia and eclampsia when vitamin-B supplements have been employed.

The vitamin-B requirement was found by Cowgill, Rosenberg and Rogoff (1931) to be increased when the food intake was augmented through vigorous exercise. Beznak and Perjes reported that when rats were subjected to increased muscular work the adrenals showed hypertrophy, but that this hypertrophy could be prevented when the intake of vitamin-B complex was increased to five times the usual daily amount. The question of increased requirement in hyperthyroidism has been investigated by Hinwich, Goldfarb and Cowgill (1932). They found that the requirement was proportional to the increased metabolism and caloric intake. To quote these investigators: "The loss of weight so characteristic of hyperthyroidism is readily corrected by administration of undifferentiated vitamin B." . . . "It might be said that vitamin B therapy is indicated in those conditions characterized by an increase in the metabolic rate." Others have studied the ability of thiamin to protect against toxic doses of thyroxin and have found that it prevents the loss of weight otherwise seen. In personal observation the supplementing of high-caloric diets with additional vitamin B appears to promote the utilization of the diet with consequent increase in body weight.

It is evident that definite figures cannot be set for the thiamin requirement without taking into consideration the various factors which may influence it. It is not even possible to state any definite relationship between the amount needed to prevent beri-beri and the optimum which the body can utilize. Recent studies have emphasized the marked difference between protection against beri-beri and optimal intake. Since the requirement for thiamin varies with the type of diet as well as physical and physiologic activity (pregnancy and lactation), it is not possible to give a single figure which will satisfy all cases. The Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council recommends a daily allowance of 1.5 mg. for moderately active men weighing 70 kilos. The allowance for women is slightly less (1.2 mg.) but is increased in pregnancy and lactation to 1.5 mg. For children, in proportion to age, the range varies from 0.4 for infants up to 1.7 for children sixteen years of age. Roughly, the allowance corresponds to .5 mg. per 1000 calories of dietary intake.

The paper of Williams, Mason, Wilder and Smith supplies the best experimental evidence yet available as to thiamin requirement. As previously mentioned, it is only when the thiamin intake of their subjects was greater than 2 mg. daily that the thiamin excretion showed a sharp rise suggesting surplus intake. Furthermore, on the basis of mental alertness, physical work performed and subjective feeling of well-being, their subjects showed definite improvement when thiamin intake was increased above the 750 micrograms

furnished by their supposedly good hospital diet, and this improvement continued to increase until an intake of 2 mg. daily was reached. Since the subjects were physically healthy adult women averaging about 50 kg. in body weight, on diets furnishing approximately 2000 Calories, and living relatively sedentary lives, it may be assumed that the optimal intake is correspondingly larger for males, for persons of greater body weight, and for those engaged in active physical labor or consuming diets of higher caloric value.

Units.—Availability of pure crystalline thiamin as a reference standard makes it possible to express the thiamin content of foods in terms of milligrams or micrograms of pure substance. It is to be expected that this method of measurement will eventually displace the older **International Unit** and **Sherman-Chase Unit**. One milligram of thiamin hydrochloride is equivalent to 333 I.U. or 3 micrograms constitutes 1 I.U. The formerly used Sherman-Chase rat-growth unit is equivalent to approximately 0.5 I.U.

Thiamin Shortage in Ordinary Diets.—Recent years have provided increasingly reliable evidence that the average common diet in Western countries is apt to supply less than an optimal amount of B₁. The data bearing on this question are so extensive that only the outstanding facts can be mentioned. Cowgill has summarized them well. Large-scale diet surveys in America and in England show that the average diets of wage-earners furnish from 250 to 500 I.U. of thiamin daily, the higher figure being the average for the best paid groups who have the greatest expenditure for foods. It is now accepted that large numbers of people subsist on diets well below a desirable level of thiamin intake and not much above that required to prevent outspoken beri-beri. The lack of specific and recognizable signs of B₁ deficiency, apart from beri-beri, is probably responsible for our failure to recognize the prevalence of this dietary defect, but the frequency with which evident improvement in health follows a change to a higher thiamin intake affords additional proof of suboptimal levels in ordinary diets.

Numerous authorities have called attention to the low-thiamin content of our common foods and to the marked loss resulting from the degermination of cereal food products, especially of wheat flour. It remained for Baker, Wright and Drummond to estimate quantitatively the loss of thiamin from this source. They found that stone-ground whole wheat flour as produced before the advent of modern milling processes contained 1.65 I.U. of thiamin per gram, while the common white flour now contains only 0.15 unit. These investigators also studied the total flour consumption of the English population one hundred years ago and at present, and found that consumption had diminished from an amount equivalent to 21 ounces of bread daily to 11 ounces. The total daily loss of thiamin from wheat sources thus exceeded 500 I.U. Examining old diet records (including those of seamen, soldiers, prisoners, hospital inmates, and the parish poor) and contrasting them with the present, it was observed that the older diets ranged from 640

1230 I.U. daily while the highest income groups of today were receiving 450 to 550 units.

It thus seems to be established that the milling of grain and changing dietary habits are responsible for a very large loss of thiamin, necessitating that this be rectified by thiamin-rich supplements. Cowgill suggests the addition of thiamin to wheat flour and related foods, but it should not be overlooked that this vitamin is not the only accessory factor lost through milling and degermination. Wheat embryo is also a source of riboflavin, nicotinic acid, pyridoxin, and vitamin E. Its functional importance as a reservoir for the growth of the plant puts it in the category of foods rich in accessory substances (along with yeast, egg-yolk, and liver) and it is not to be assumed that thiamin alone or a combination of the known members of the B complex will restore all that is lost in processing. Until the matter is better understood, it would seem logical to avoid this deficiency by the use of whole grain cereal products or by the addition of wheat-germ itself to the diet.

When a higher thiamin intake is achieved by the use of whole wheat bread, the starch consumption is correspondingly increased. The trend of modern dietary habits for persons not engaged in physical labor has been toward lower consumption of starch and cereal products. Such persons, and those on low-carbohydrate diets for weight control or diabetes, cannot be expected to eat sufficient whole wheat bread to ensure a high thiamin intake. While the general use of whole germ flour would improve the situation, particularly for the lower income groups, it will still be necessary for many to tap sources which are rich in thiamin but relatively poor in starch.

Sources and Administration.—It is noteworthy that there are no outstanding sources of thiamin among common foods. Whole grain products, if used in sufficient quantities, would insure an adequate supply of this factor, but it is hardly possible to obtain enough from this source under modern conditions of food consumption. It should be repeatedly emphasized that natural plant sources contain both the carbohydrate fuel and the thiamin catalyst necessary for its complete oxidation. Processing of the food too often leaves the carbohydrate behind without the attendant means of utilizing it to the fullest extent.

It has been shown by Aughey and Daniel that "on a serving basis baked potatoes, including the skin, rank higher in thiamin than cooked whole wheat or oat cereals. Even boiled potatoes, spinach, and carrots may be classed as furnishing amounts of thiamin per serving comparable to those supplied by these cooked cereals. One slice of an all-whole-wheat bread also contains approximately the same quantity of thiamin as one serving of these vegetable and cereal foods." "The whole-grain cereals and dried legumes included in every list of thiamin-rich foods furnish less of this vitamin than is generally supposed" since they are not consumed in the dry state. "Navy beans, taking up less water during

cooking, furnish proportionately more thiamin per serving than the cereals."

Although fruits and vegetables are hardly notable for their thiamin content, they contain sufficient to be of significance when these foods are prominent in the dietary.

The liberal use of potatoes, legumes, pork products, liver, nuts, whole grain cereals, milk, and egg-yolk should provide an adequate thiamin intake. It is to be noted that such a diet necessarily furnishes a high-carbohydrate intake. When this is contraindicated, supplementary sources of thiamin are necessary, the best of which are yeast and wheat-germ. Yeast products are extremely variable in thiamin content and should have been standardized by assay before use. Wheat-germ is less variable, but it is likewise preferable to employ standardized preparations. The ordinary amounts taken are $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 ounce daily of brewer's yeast powder or wheat-germ. Tomato or prune juice has proved to be a satisfactory vehicle for the yeast.

The advent of pure crystalline thiamin preparations on the market in convenient dosage forms has led to their widespread and indiscriminate use. These products should not be employed for the ordinary purpose of increasing the dietary content of thiamin but should be reserved for the treatment of deficiencies where very large doses are indicated and for patients unable to take the cruder preparations, or where parenteral administration is necessary.

When the body reserves are seriously depleted, as in beri-beri, doses as large as 20 to 50 mg. daily may be used by intramuscular or intravenous injection, but once the reserves are built up it is doubtful whether doses larger than 10 mg. daily have any advantage since the excess is excreted promptly. Tablets of 5 or 10 mg. may be added to the daily diet to ensure a high-vitamin intake in fevers and infections and when restricted therapeutic diets prevent the use of high-thiamin foods, but in general the crude concentrates of the vitamin-B complex are preferable for supplements in such conditions. Postoperatively it is suggested that a 20-mg. dose be given daily (orally, intravenously, or intramuscularly).

The vitamin B₁ commercially available is thiamin hydrochloride with 1 molecule of water of hydration. In aqueous solution (1 to 20) a pH of approximately 3.5 is observed. Such solutions may be sterilized without loss by heating to 120° C. for thirty minutes or more, the stability depending upon the highly acid reaction (Molitor and Sampson, 1936).

Riboflavin.

When riboflavin was identified as a growth-promoting and dermatitis-preventing factor of the vitamin-B complex, it was first designated as B₂ or G. Later separation of other factors from this portion of the complex led to confusion, B₂ or G sometimes being

ed for riboflavin and sometimes the entire group. Obviously, the chemical term is preferable.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Riboflavin is an orange-yellow crystalline pigment, $C_{17}H_{20}N_4O_6$, somewhat soluble in water and dilute alcohol. It occurs both free and as a phosphate, in which form it enters into combination with a specific protein to constitute the yellow respiratory enzyme of Warburg. The separation of this ferment by dialysis into a protein and a flavin destroys its enzyme characteristics but does not inhibit vitamin activity. The flavins are widely distributed in the plant and animal kingdoms, but apparently they cannot be synthesized by the animal cell.

In solutions, riboflavin exhibits an intense yellow-green fluorescence (maximum at pH 6 to 7). It is not oxidized by exposure to air but is inactivated by light, particularly by ultra-violet irradiation. Riboflavin is relatively resistant to heat, except in the presence of strong alkalies. It is not affected by dilute acids but if kept at room temperature in an alkaline medium, it gradually loses its potency. As much as temperatures of 125° C. for several hours are needed for inactivation, ordinary cooking is not apt to destroy the vitamin.

Absorption and Storage.—Being water-soluble, riboflavin is readily absorbed from the gastro-intestinal tract unless abnormal function exists. Increased liberality of intake results in measurably augmented concentrations of this vitamin in body tissues generally (Carlsson and Sherman) but capacity for storage is limited. The liver is the chief depot with the kidneys and heart muscle next in order. Emmerie cited by Hogan reports that excretion exceeds absorption on low diets and lags behind on a high intake. Processes involving both storage and tissue depletion do not appear to be rapid. The stored vitamin may not be used for current needs when exogenous riboflavin fails nor may the tissues promptly absorb dietary riboflavin. Under stress, it would appear that the flavin is conserved more efficiently by the body than is thiamin. On an adequate diet, riboflavin can be detected in the urine, which is not the case in definite deficiency.

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Riboflavin is a component of one of the essential intracellular respiratory enzymes concerned in the oxidation of carbohydrate. The growth-promoting properties inherent in the vitamin-B complex have been ascribed to riboflavin, but growth undoubtedly involves more than this factor.

According to Sherman and Campbell (1939) riboflavin shares with calcium and vitamin A the credit for the chemical improvement in an already normal condition of nutrition. The calcium intake appears to influence the retention of iron. Riboflavin may be instrumental in the utilization of iron for hemoglobin formation. It may also determine the biologic value of the dietary protein.

Because of its close association with other factors of the B complex, notably nicotinic acid, it has been difficult to determine the clinical

picture of pure riboflavin deficiency in humans. Deficiency of the flavin is responsible for some of the manifestations of the pellagra syndrome. "A specific type of glossitis can often be recognized before other signs of riboflavin deficiency are present. The tongue is clean, the papillae flattened or mushroom-shaped rather than atrophic, the color is definitely purplish-red or magenta as compared with the scarlet of nicotinic acid deficiency. Frequently the development of this type of glossitis can be observed in pellagrins whose red atrophic tongues have become normal in appearance under nicotinic acid therapy but whose diet has remained deficient in riboflavin."

The signs of ariboflavinosis so far described are the aforementioned glossitis, nasolabial seborrhea, greasy scales behind the ears, a salty crust like "urea frost" on the bridge of the nose and forehead which refuses to be brushed off (Jolliffe), a typical cheilosis, and keratitis. The cheilosis involves "reddened, then shiny, denuded lips with maceration and fissuring in the angles of the mouth." The quotations are from Kruse, Sydenstricker, Sebrell and Cleckley, who describe the ocular manifestations of riboflavin deficiency. Where dimness of vision and partial blindness result from such deficiency, biophotometric measurements will be affected. Riboflavin and vitamin A exert a synergistic effect in improving ocular disturbances. Vascularization of the cornea, observed under expert examination with the slit-lamp, may be the only symptom seen in riboflavin deficiency.

In experimentally produced riboflavin deficiency fatty infiltration of the liver is a common finding and, incidentally, has been observed also in cases of pellagra coming to autopsy.

Deficiency symptoms are seen clinically in the presence of markedly inadequate diets as in pellagra, chronic alcoholism, and poorly-balanced, long-continued therapeutic diets. Not infrequently persons of professional standing exhibit definite riboflavin deficiency. There is increasing evidence that ariboflavinosis is the most widely distributed of the vitamin deficiencies. If acute deficiency has been relieved by riboflavin and then the therapy discontinued, the symptoms may return in eight to twenty days on an unaltered diet.

Requirement.—The requirement for riboflavin depends, like thiamin, upon many variable factors such as the type of diet, physiologic and physical activity. According to the recommended allowances of the National Research Council, a daily intake of 1.8 mg. for a moderately active man receiving 3,000 calories is ample. In the latter half of pregnancy and during lactation, the recommended allowances are respectively 2.5 and 3 mg.

For laboratory determination of riboflavin deficiency refer to this topic under thiamin.

Sources and Administration.—Milk and milk products constitute an important source of riboflavin in the diet. Pasteurization, evaporation, drying, etc., do not seriously lessen the riboflavin value.

Sherman has called attention to the fact that riboflavin appears

be formed primarily in the green leaves of actively growing plants and to remain there in higher concentration than elsewhere in the plant. Kale, turnip greens, etc., are excellent sources of this vitamin. Rose and Phipard found green peas and lima beans to contain about 300 gamma per 100 grams. Lantz reported that cooked lentils and beans were a good source of riboflavin and that the method of cooking had little effect on this factor; there was no appreciable loss in discarded soaking water.

Some fruits and most root vegetables possess fair amounts of riboflavin. Grapes, lemons, grapefruit and oranges contain little of this vitamin. Carrots are equal to milk, meat, and the poorer leafy vegetables. Cereal products are low in the vitamin although whole grains contain small quantities. Wheat-germ is rated as a good source, varying from 450 to 1200 gamma per 100 grams.

Yeast and liver are the outstanding sources of riboflavin. Liver is approximately ten times the riboflavin content of muscle. According to György fish muscle is poor in this vitamin. Meat and meat products are an important source of riboflavin, glandular organs being particularly rich. From the data of Michelsen, Saksman, and Elvehjem the minimum daily requirement of this vitamin can be met by 12 to 15 grams of dry liver or 50 to 60 grams of the fresh material, the food being fried before ingestion. Approximately 450 grams of fresh fried pork loin would be needed to provide a similar amount of riboflavin.

The abundance of good sources of riboflavin makes it evident that deficiency is not likely to occur in normal well-varied diets. The use of green vegetables, meat, eggs, and milk products is sufficient to insure an adequate intake.

For the treatment of acute and severe deficiencies, purified preparations of riboflavin are available for oral or parenteral use. Six milligrams daily are ample for subsidence of symptoms in a few days (Sebrell). Lack of ready solubility hampers oral administration, 5 mg. being required by mouth for the same effect as 5 mg. intramuscularly. Under such dosage, pain and lacrimation in keratitis disappear within twenty-four hours. In two weeks, corneal opacities may have vanished; certainly they should be gone in a month and vision restored to normal except in the case of long-standing lesions.

Nicotinic Acid (Niacin).

In 1911 Funk assigned the name "vitamine" to a crystalline substance which would prevent and cure beri-beri. Analysis showed that nicotinic acid amide was one of its components, but since this substance did not possess antineuritic potency no further attention was paid to it.

In 1924, Goldberger and Tanner postulated the presence of a substance in foodstuffs which would prevent and cure human pellagra. This was designated as the P-P (pellagra-preventive) factor.

In 1928, Goldberger and Wheeler demonstrated that the disease in dogs known as *black tongue* was analogous to human pellagra in its

response to preventive and curative diets. In 1937-1938 it was established that nicotinic acid or its amide was the pellagra-preventive vitamin. It should be recognized, however, that the pellagra generally presents symptoms attributable to lack of nicotinic acid, thiamin, riboflavin, and possibly pyridoxin.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Nicotinic acid or 2-pyridine carboxylic acid, $C_6H_4N.COOH$, crystallizes as colorless needles which are soluble in alcohol and ether but only slightly so in water. The acid is readily soluble in alkali carbonate solutions. It is fairly resistant to heat.

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Nicotinamide is an essential component of the series of intracellular respiratory enzymes. Insufficiency of this factor apparently results in the accumulation of toxic products of metabolism which are responsible for certain of the symptoms of the pellagra syndrome, particularly the dermatitis and probably the central nervous and mental symptoms. Jolliffe *et al.* (1940) have shown that the encephalopathy which occurs in chronic alcoholism and other states of chronic malnutrition responds to the administration of nicotinic acid but not to thiamin nor riboflavin. This syndrome is characterized by clouding of consciousness, cog-wheel rigidities, and uncontrollable grasping and sucking reflexes; it may or may not be associated with polyneuritis (due to lack of thiamin), with pellagra or with the oculomotor signs of central neuritis. These investigators believe that the symptoms are indicative of a complete deficiency of nicotinic acid while the stomatitis, the psychic reactions and possibly the dermatitis of pellagra represent a partial deficiency.

The common finding of Vincent's organisms in the mouth lesions of nicotinic acid deficiency, and their disappearance when the tissues become normal in response to the administration of nicotinic acid, has suggested the use of this factor in the treatment of Vincent's infection and in other forms of stomatitis where subclinical deficiency may play a part in determining the resistance of the mucosa to infection.

The dermatitis seen in pellagra is aggravated by irritants, whether mechanical or physicochemical. The effects of radiant heat and sunlight have been associated with altered pigment metabolism. The increased excretion of porphyrins which has been reported is said to be diminished after yeast, liver or nicotinic acid therapy.

Animal experimentation has produced some confusion with reference to pellagra. It would appear that pellagra in chicks (in which the Filtrate Factor is important) differs from pellagra in rats (in which there seems to be a deficiency of riboflavin or vitamin B_6 or both) and that this in turn is not the same as human pellagra (for which nicotinic acid is curative in part).

The rôle played by nicotinamide in biologic oxidations is well established. Since the essential pyridine nucleus is not formed in the body, it must be supplied in the diet. The various cooperating enzymes in tissue oxidation include co-carboxylase (thiamin pyro-

osphate), the yellow ferment (*riboflavin* phosphate + protein) and the co-dehydrogenases I and II which consist of nicotinamide, adenine, ribose and phosphoric acid. It will be recognized that all these are members of the B complex. The pyridine nature of vitamin B₆ would suggest that it functions similarly.

Nutritional failure of these three vitamins has been reported to cause disintegration of personality, including breakdown of morale (Prostie and Spies). The spectacular effects which have been observed after thiamin, riboflavin and nicotinic acid therapy may well be interpreted as representing enhanced ability to carry on oxidative processes in the tissues with a consequent sense of well-being and vitality.

Salvesen has reported 3 cases of pellagrous dermatitis observed during treatment of other conditions with thiamin and ascorbic acid. The inference is that overdosing leads to a relative insufficiency of nicotinic acid. Such observations emphasize the undesirability of using high concentrations of separate vitamins except as drugs for a limited period of time. A suitable supporting diet should always be arranged.

Clinical Estimation of Deficiency.—The chief urinary end-product of niacin metabolism is N'-methylnicotinamide, the presence of which may be readily determined clinically. Estimation of body stores of this vitamin is based on quantitative determinations of N'-methylnicotinamide in the urine in the fasting state or following a dose of niacin amide. This topic has already been discussed under thiamin.

The requirement for niacin in common with thiamin and riboflavin is altered by such conditions as infection, hyperthyroidism, pregnancy and lactation, elevations of temperature, physical exertion and the nature of the diet. The Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council recommends for men weighing 70 kilos, who are moderately active and receiving a diet of 3,000 calories, a niacin intake of 15 mg.

Yeast and liver are the outstanding sources of nicotinic acid, as is riboflavin. Lean meats, poultry, canned salmon and haddock, milk, green leafy vegetables, and wheat-germ are satisfactory sources of the vitamin. Canning processes apparently do not appreciably diminish the activity of this relatively heat-stable factor.

In critical deficiency nicotinic acid as such is needed; foods rich in this factor are not satisfactory (Elvehjem). This acid is available in purified preparations for oral and parenteral administration. For the treatment of pellagra Spies, Bean and Ashe recommend 500 mg. daily in 50-mg. oral doses at hourly intervals. Mild cases, however, may require as little as 50 mg. and severe ones as much as 1 gram daily. Administered intravenously, the total daily dose is 40 to 80 mg. in physiologic saline (sterilized by autoclaving) given in 10- to 15-mg. amounts. Brown places the daily dose at 1.5 mg. per kilogram of body weight. Subcutaneous doses of 100 mg. have been used.

Sodium nicotinate has shown less undesirable reactions than the acid. It is prepared by neutralizing a saturated solution of nicotinic acid with sodium bicarbonate, phenol red serving as indicator. Ultimately, the concentration is adjusted to 0.5 mg. nicotinic acid per cubic centimeter and the solution sterilized.

When nicotinic acid is given by mouth in doses of 50 mg. or more it usually results, within twenty to thirty minutes, in a marked flushing of the skin of the head and neck, sometimes extending to the lower extremities. Moore has shown that this reaction is accompanied by vasodilatation in the central nervous system. The usual intravenous dose of 10 to 20 mg. may produce within a minute increase in skin temperature, tingling and burning sensations, and changes in respiration, pulse-rate, and blood-pressure. There may also be an associated epigastric distress, increased peristalsis, and occasional belching.

Ruffin deplors the indiscriminate use of large doses of nicotinic acid because of possible toxic sequelæ. This investigator found daily doses of 70 to 100 mg. as effective as ten times that amount. Because of the associated distressing symptoms it would seem prudent not to administer nicotinic acid in amounts which produce reactions except when the patient is under observation.

It has been pointed out by Rosenberg (1942) that nicotinic acid is present in living tissues not in the free state but as the amide. Since both the amide and free acid are equally effective therapeutically and since the amide does not produce the unpleasant reactions attendant upon the use of the free acid, it would seem that the amide should be the clinician's choice in nicotinic acid therapy. The recommended dosages of the amide are the same as those of the free acid.

Vitamin B₆ (Pyridoxin).

Vitamin B₆ has been recognized for some years as a portion of the B complex which prevents a form of dermatitis in the rat. Various other terms (vitamin H, I, Y) have been applied to this factor. It has been isolated in pure form by Lepkovsky and its chemical constitution determined, $C_8H_{11}O_3N$. It is relatively heat-stable, even in alkaline solution, and is only partly soluble in water in its natural state. It is rendered soluble by autolysis of the complex of which it is a part. Vitamin B₆ exhibits basic properties and has been named pyridoxin. This substance is destroyed by long exposure to light.

The particular dermatitis produced by vitamin-B₆ deficiency in rats is a florid type of acrodynia. This disease can be cured by two different means: (1) By certain essential fatty acids, independent of vitamin B₆; and (2) by a rice-bran concentrate which contains vitamin B₆ and an "accessory factor" (Schneider, Steenbock, and Platzl). The assay of anti-acrodynic potency of food cannot be taken as indicating solely the vitamin-B₆ content. Birch has suggested that vitamin B₆ is concerned with physiologic utilization of unsaturated fatty acids.

Although acrodynia or "pink disease" has been described in children, its cause has not been determined. György (1938), studying the effect of cold temperature on the appearance of rat acrodynia, observed striking similarity to the syndrome of chilblain in man and raised the question as to whether susceptibility may not be a function of insufficient vitamin B₆ reserves.

According to Spies, Bean and Ashe vitamin B₆ is essential in human nutrition as judged by its preventive and curative effect on certain parts of the pellagra syndrome. Four patients under nicotinic acid, thiamin chloride, and riboflavin therapy complained of residual symptoms which included extreme nervousness, insomnia, irritability, abdominal pains, weakness, and difficulty in walking. The administration of 50 mg. of pure synthetic vitamin B₆ in sterile oil solution brought immediate and spectacular relief; within twenty-four hours all symptoms had disappeared. It would thus appear that pyridoxin is involved in muscle metabolism.

Both Spies and Jolliffe have been successful in the treatment of paralysis agitans with pyridoxin. Jolliffe employed an intravenous dose of 100 mg. daily and obtained spectacular return of expression to the face, lessening of the rigidities and increased length of movement. Whether or not the whole of the B complex is necessary for sustained results has not yet been established.

Hypochromic microcytic anemia in dogs has been associated with dietary deficiency in vitamin B₆ (Fouts, Helmer, and Lepkovsky).

Sources.—Fruits and vegetables are poor in vitamin B₆, fish and meat fair; seeds, legumes, and cereals relatively rich. Egg-yolk and many of the vegetable oils (linseed, peanut, rice, soybean, cottonseed, corn and wheat-germ) are conspicuous for their high content. Both white and yellow cornmeal are good sources of pyridoxin which serves to distinguish this vitamin from the P-P factor. Vitamin B₆ has been reported in excellent quantity by Lantz in cooked pinto beans, but there may be considerable loss of the vitamin in soaking water. Crude cane molasses is a good source of B₆ and also contains some riboflavin; beet molasses is practically devoid of both these factors. Cow's milk is equally potent in riboflavin and vitamin B₆; human milk possesses the same potency for B₆ as cow's milk, but only one-third the amount of riboflavin. Butter fat and beef fat contain pyridoxin.

Pantothenic Acid.

The eighth vitamin to be synthesized (Stiller, Keresztesy, andinkelstein, 1940) was designated pantothenic acid (*Gr.* "from everywhere") by R. J. Williams (1933). The older name for this nutritional factor was "bios." It would appear to be of fundamental nutritional importance. The vitamins essential for growth include pantothenic acid, riboflavin, nicotinic acid, pyridoxin, and factor W.

Pantothenic acid has been prepared as its calcium salt which is a white crystalline powder $(C_8H_{14}O_5N)_2Ca$. It occurs in liver partly

combined with colloids from which it must be freed by autolysis. This acid is heat and alkaline labile.

There is no immediate promise that pantothenic acid will be assayed by colorimetric or other physical or chemical means. Available methods involve the growth response of yeast or a lactic acid organism. Using a bacteriologic method Stanbury, Snell, and Spies examined venous blood from 18 normal persons and found the vitamin to range from 0.19 to 0.32 micrograms per cubic centimeter (average 0.225 γ). Cases of pellagra, beri-beri and riboflavin deficiency showed a decrease of 0.05 to 0.09 micrograms (23 to 50 per cent) below the normal average.

Intravenous injection of as much as 100 mg. of calcium or sodium pantothenate into human beings has been made without untoward reactions. Following injections of pantothenic acid there has been noted an associated rise in blood riboflavin. Likewise, injection of riboflavin has induced an increase in the blood level of pantothenic acid. This is taken as evidence of the essential character of this acid in human nutrition. Presumably it is related to riboflavin in function.

In spite of the fact that a great deal has been said about the value of pantothenic acid in the prevention of human achromotrichia, controlled observations over a period of time have not borne out these contentions.

Sources.—Pantothenic acid is widely distributed in foods and is universally found in all animal tissues, including human. The highest concentration of pantothenic acid is found in the liver and kidneys, then in order the heart, spleen, brain, pancreas, tongue, lungs. Muscle tissue has the lowest concentration. Waisman, Michelsen, and Elvehjem discovered that stewing decreased the potency of kidneys, heart, and spleen by one-third. Frying did not destroy the pantothenic acid in liver, in fact the cooking seemed to improve the growth-stimulating potency.

Vitamin H (Biotin).

Although "vitamin H" has been used to designate a variety of factors, it is currently employed (György) to describe the detoxifying agent of vitamin-like character which prevents egg-white injury. There is increasing evidence that vitamin H, biotin, and coenzyme R are closely related if not identical. Possibly this vitamin functions in intermediary carbohydrate metabolism in conjunction with members of the B complex to which indeed it may belong. As pointed out by Eakin *et al.* the action of vitamin H in protecting against the injury caused by a diet containing egg-white is somewhat unique in that the diet cannot be considered to be deficient in an essential food constituent. The injury caused by egg-white is due to a protein called "avidin" which combines with biotin to form an unabsorbable complex, thus rendering the dietary biotin non-available to the organism.

The naturally occurring organic complex is insoluble both in fat and water. During autolysis of yeast, the water-soluble vitamin H is set free. On proteolytic digestion (with pepsin or, better still, trypsin) it is released from some substance present in liver. The vitamin possesses acidic properties. It may be autoclaved at 200° C. for one to two hours without deleterious effect. It is also resistant to boiling and treatment with acid or alkali.

The toxicity of egg-white in experimental animals is an established fact. It is associated with a characteristic dermatitis of the seborrheic squamative type. Deep brown pigmentation may occur.

Sources.—The main sources of vitamin H are liver, kidney, yeast, and to a lesser extent cow's milk. Breast milk possesses only slight potency. Cane molasses is rich in this vitamin. Thymus and spleen are without vitamin-H activity. Beef muscle not only contains no vitamin H but actually tends to aggravate existing egg-white injury.

FOLIC ACID

The most recent member of the Vitamin B complex to receive attention is folic acid. This substance has also been called Vitamin I, B_c, Factor U and Lactobacillus Casei Factor. This multiplicity of names has come about by virtue of the fact that several groups of investigators, all working independently, have isolated the same substance and had, during their investigations, given this unknown factor a name corresponding to the experimental organism which they were using at the time.

In 1932, Wills and Billimoria, working in India, described a macrocytic anemia in monkeys which was accompanied by leukopenia, diarrhea and megaloblastic changes in the bone marrow. This condition was produced through the feeding of purified diets containing adequate quantities of all nutrients but lacking some component of the vitamin B complex. Improvement could be brought about by giving yeast.

In 1935, Day, Langston and Shukers reported an analogous syndrome resulting from a diet deficient in riboflavin and possibly other B complex factors but not deficient in thiamin. They found that adding riboflavin did not correct the condition but it could be prevented by giving liver extract or yeast. They suggested that some other unknown factor was responsible for the improvement and called this factor "Vitamin M".

Stokstad and Manning reported in 1938 that chicks required, for normal hematopoiesis, a factor found in yeast, alfalfa and wheat bran. This they called "Factor U". It was further reported in 1939 by Hogan and Parrot that the absence of this necessary factor resulted in a macrocytic hyperchromic anemia as well as retarded growth. They found that they could prevent this syndrome by using an extract of liver which contained a factor called by them "Vitamin B_o".

In 1941, Stokstad, working with cultures of *Lactobacillus casei*, reported a factor necessary for the growth of these organisms found in liver. This he called the "Lactobacillus Casei Factor".

Further investigation by various workers showed that the *Lactobacillus casei* factor behaved biologically as Vitamin M and that it could also be used in the prevention of chick anemias. Since the various anemias produced experimentally were macrocytic in character and since they were apparently all benefited by the use of this same substance, it soon became apparent that the various factors described were probably all the same substance or several substances very closely allied. The name Folic Acid was first used by Mitchell, Snell and Williams, in 1941, who isolated this substance from spinach. The name "Folic" is derived from the Latin "folium" signifying leaf. Folic Acid has since been isolated in pure form and more recently (1945) prepared synthetically.

The liver *Lactobacillus casei* factor was found to be composed of a pteridine (a two ringed nitrogen compound), para-amino-benzoic acid and glutamic acid. The name "pteroyl glutamic acid" has been suggested for the complete compound. Fermentative *Lactobacillus casei* factor contains two additional glutamic acid groups. Pteroyl glutamic acid is practically non-toxic and has recently been used in the treatment of macrocytic anemias of sprue, and pernicious anemia as well as dietary macrocytic anemia and the macrocytic anemias of pellagra, pregnancy and infancy.

Regarding the function of folic acid, little is understood. Stokes, in 1944, showed that certain bacteria which normally required this vitamin could get along without it if a large amount of thymine (a component of nucleic acid) was added to the medium. He demonstrated that these bacteria, grown in this manner, were devoid of L casei factor and suggested that the function of folic acid in these organisms might be to assist in the synthesis of thymine.

VITAMIN C.

The ability of **fresh** fruit and vegetables to protect against scurvy is due to the presence of a factor known as vitamin C, now identified as *ascorbic acid*, $C_6H_7O_6$, a carbohydrate derivative. The term *ceritamic acid* has been suggested as a more suitable name, but has not achieved popularity.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Ascorbic acid is a white crystalline powder, soluble in water and insoluble in oils. When dried, it is stable on exposure to air and daylight at room temperature for years; development of a buff color is not attended by appreciable decomposition (King, 1939). Aqueous solutions, however, are readily oxidized, especially in the presence of flavins or light. An alkaline medium is more destructive than an acid one. The vitamin is inactivated by heat only in the presence of oxygen. Commercial canning processes which exclude air thus preserve a

ge part of the vitamin C, but home canning is usually more destructive. Storage of fruits and vegetables at ordinary temperatures leads to gradual loss of the vitamin, but refrigeration retards its loss, and frozen foods usually retain their potency. The extreme sensitiveness of ascorbic acid to oxidative change necessitates unusual care in food processing to prevent serious loss of vitamin activity. It should be stressed that food tables usually report the vitamin-C potency of raw, fresh products. The information therein may be wholly misleading with reference to these same foods as eaten.

The outstanding chemical characteristic of ascorbic acid is its powerful reducing action. Oxygen combines with it in two stages in form: (1) *dehydro-ascorbic* acid which is easily reduced in the body to the original state and thus is equivalent to active vitamin C; and (2) a more completely oxidized product which is irreversible and inactive. Vitamin C assays, therefore, must determine both the active unoxidized form (ascorbic acid) and the reversibly oxidized form (dehydro-ascorbic acid).

Not all of the various forms of ascorbic acid which have been synthesized (Zilva, 1935) possess antiscorbutic activity. Of the known structural variants which have been already prepared, *L*-ascorbic acid shows the greatest potency and is the compound indicated when vitamin C or simply ascorbic acid is mentioned. Physiologic activity apparently is associated with the spatial arrangement of the oxygen bridge (see p. 834).

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Ascorbic acid is identified as one of the series of intracellular oxidation ferments necessary for the metabolism of foodstuffs by the cell. All actively growing parts of the higher plants are rich in vitamin C. Animal tissues of high metabolic activity have greater concentrations of ascorbic acid than those with a lower metabolism. With the progression of age, therefore, the tissues show a diminishing vitamin-C content. The pituitary gland, corpus luteum, adrenal cortex, thyroid gland and liver are especially rich in this factor. With the exception of man, certain of the apes, and the guinea-pig, animals are capable of synthesizing the vitamin from some unknown precursor, possibly glucuronic and galacturonic acids.

Many functional rôles have been assigned to vitamin C. These include maintenance of capillary resistance, coöperation with vitamin D in the formation of normal bone and tooth structures, and protection against bacterial invasion of the tissues. Vitamin C is concerned with the elaboration of certain intercellular colloids, notably the cementing substances which occur in the matrices of bone, in the capillary wall, in cartilage and dentin. Anatomic changes have been described in teeth during the developmental period and in bone formation due to alteration of the intercellular substance produced by osteoblasts when the vitamin-C supply is inadequate. According to Eddy (1930) several times as much

ascorbic acid is required to forestall malformation of teeth as is needed to prevent macroscopic evidence of scurvy.

Vitamin C is very definitely related to calcium metabolism. It is known that calcium salts in dilute solution are not completely ionized. Organic ions form complexes with Ca^{++} with apparent increase in the solubility of such compounds as $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$. Ascorbate is particularly effective in this regard (Greenwald, 1938) thus influencing the deposit of calcium in tissues. Clinically, this is borne out by the disturbances of calcification noted in scurvy.

The classic picture of outstanding vitamin-C deficiency is scurvy, characterized by periosteal hemorrhages about the joints, swollen and bleeding gums, and often anemia. Lesser degrees of inadequacy when long continued have been shown to produce a variety of effects in different tissues. In the growing young, defects occur in the development of bone, cartilage and dentin.

Even slight degrees of vitamin-C deficiency tend to weaken the capillaries and predispose to the occurrence of capillary hemorrhages. This has been made the basis of the commonly used capillary resistance test for vitamin-C deficiency, in which the relative intracapillary pressure is increased by the application of a tourniquet to the arm or by applying a suction cup. The occurrence of petechial bleeding in response to this test suggests vitamin-C deficiency, but since other factors may also predispose to such bleeding, it cannot be regarded as specific unless the administration of vitamin C is subsequently curative.

It should be mentioned here that capillary fragility is increased in such conditions as scarlet fever and high blood pressure and is decreased in severe anemias of any kind, especially when the red blood count is less than 3,000,000 per cmm.

Vitamin-C deficiency has been shown to retard the process of wound healing and is receiving considerable attention in surgery for this reason. This effect has led to the hypothesis that ascorbic acid is intimately concerned with the intercellular cement substances not only of the blood-vessels, bones and teeth but also of other tissues. Its relation to these substances may be a direct one, or it is possible that the effect of deficiency upon the intermediary metabolism of foodstuffs within the cell leads to excessive accumulation of partially metabolized products which are responsible for some of the tissue abnormalities described.

The high concentration of vitamin C in certain organs may be indicative of specific functions in these tissues, while its presence in the liver may mean only that this organ acts as a storage depot. It is thought that its occurrence in the adrenal gland and in the eye indicate special functions. Thus, while the lens is normally high in ascorbic acid, the concentration has been found to be much smaller when cataract is present. There is evidence that the high concentration in the adrenals is linked with a close relationship between vitamin C and the cortical hormone. Deficiency of ascorbic acid has, therefore, been related to Addison's disease and

der pathologic pigmentations (Hoff, 1936). Depigmentation of the skin following massive doses of this vitamin has been reported by Abt and Farmer (1938). Daily oral administration of 450 mg. of the acid resulted in considerable depigmentation after six to eight weeks without relieving other Addisonian symptoms.

Much work has been done on the relationship between vitamin C and bacterial infections and toxins. It would appear that resistance to certain infections is raised in the presence of an abundance of ascorbic acid and that resistance to diphtheria toxin, for instance, is likewise increased. Subnormal levels of the vitamin in the blood have been shown to exist in fevers and a variety of other diseases, such as tuberculosis and rheumatoid arthritis. Under these circumstances, administration of large doses of ascorbic acid does not readily raise the blood level nor the urinary excretion. A high daily intake, therefore, should be assured.

Subnormal ascorbic acid storage presumably is a fairly common occurrence. The fact that scurvy may develop insidiously in patients treated for various ailments requires constant alertness on the part of the attending physician to sense its presence promptly in the incipient stages or, better still, to provide against its development. "Essential" hematuria has responded to ascorbic acid in doses of 100 to 300 mg. given orally and intravenously (Burkland, 1939). Vitamin C has been found to influence the metabolism of tyrosine as to prevent the excretion of homogentisic acid in man (Sealock and Silberstein, 1939).

Clinical Estimation of Deficiency.—Capillary resistance tests have enjoyed considerable popularity. Göthlin (1931) employs a positive pressure technic whereas Dalldorf (1935) uses negative pressure. Both of these experimenters stress that vitamin-C deficiency is not the only causal factor in hemorrhagic diathesis. A positive test could not be interpreted as indicating deficiency unless administration of ascorbic acid diminishes the hemorrhagic tendency; when it does so, the test is useful as an index of therapeutic response. Negative results tend to exclude the possibility of vitamin-C deficiency. Severe anemia may cause a false negative response to this test (Sloan, 1938), as mentioned previously.

Since any number of drugs have been discovered to produce capillary fragility in sensitive individuals, tendency for hemorrhage to occur may often be associated with entirely normal blood and urine ascorbic acid findings. True thrombopenic purpura and hemophilia do not benefit from vitamin-C therapy. Where the hemorrhagic condition responds dramatically to such treatment, deficiency can be regarded as established. On the other hand, a perfectly normal capillary resistance test may be encountered together with extremely subnormal blood ascorbic acid and diminished storage indicated by saturation tests. Possibly this represents transient acute deficiency before a sufficient interval of time has elapsed to affect the capillary wall.

The most satisfactory tests involve determinations of blood and urine ascorbic acid concentrations since extremely low levels (as

0.2 mg.) are needed for production of abnormal capillary fragility. The normal fasting plasma level is 0.6 to 1.4 mg. per cent. The upper limit probably represents the renal threshold, since the urinary excretion of Vitamin C is increased sharply when the plasma level exceeds this value. Absorption of ascorbic acid reaches a peak four to six hours after ingestion. The normal adult on an average satisfactory diet excretes 20 to 30 mg. and the normal child 10 to 30 mg. *per diem*. The amount which appears in the urine reflects, as a rule, not only the current intake but also the degree of saturation within the body.

Numerous investigators have devised tests to measure vitamin-C saturation. These are performed by giving test doses ranging from 100 to 1000 mg. by oral, subcutaneous or intravenous routes and determining the amount excreted in fixed time. The variety of these procedures would indicate that none is entirely satisfactory. The diagnostic burden placed upon these tests is frequently too great. A saturation test may show depleted reserves if the vitamin-C intake has been below normal for only a few days preceding the test and it may show good storage after only a day or two of high intake; it gives no information as to the adequacy of the customary diet unless this happens to be the test diet. It must be remembered that clinical vitamin-C deficiency is the result of a more or less constantly low intake over a considerable period of time.

If 1 gram of ascorbic acid in 10 cc. of water or saline is given intravenously, at least 450 mg. should appear in the urine within five hours. To offset the error due to retention in renal insufficiency, Ludden and Wright (1940) collect the urine after ninety minutes and at the end of the five-hour period. From an empirical formula is calculated the probable twenty-four-hour excretion which is called the **saturation index**:

$$\text{Saturation Index} = \frac{ab}{1.27a - 0.26b}$$

Where a = 90 minutes' excretion
 b = total 5-hour output.

Under normal conditions, this index is greater than 500 mg. and may reach 800 to 1000 mg. in the "saturated" subject.

Kajdi *et al.* (1939) modified the saturation test by determining the plasma concentration before and four hours after an intramuscular injection of 200 mg. of ascorbic acid. The initial value was found to be an unsatisfactory criterion of deficiency but results on the second specimen below 0.6 mg. were associated with serious depletion and below 0.2 mg. with scurvy. A more sensitive index was obtained by multiplying the initial plasma concentration by the increase shown in four hours times 100. In normal subjects, this index usually exceeded 10; in clinical scurvy it fell below 0.8 and varied from this level to 6 when the body reserves were definitely depleted.

Slobody (1944) describes an intradermal decolorization test performed by injecting 0.05 cc. of N 300 dichlorophenolindophenol

the skin. The time required for decolorization was then noted. He reports that of 59 patients with blood vitamin C level below 0.3 mg., decolorization required more than fourteen minutes in 4 of these cases. A skin test time of more than fourteen minutes would thus suggest a definite degree of body unsaturation. In cases of mild unsaturation, decolorization time was found to be nine to thirteen minutes, whereas normal subjects required less than nine minutes.

In investigating the relationship between intake, blood level, retention and excretion in adults, Ralli *et al.* (1939) found complete saturation of the tissues only when the plasma level was maintained at 1 mg. per cent; this required the intake of 100 mg. daily. At this intake there was maximum retention—approximately 90 mg. and a constant low excretion of 8 to 13 mg. *per diem*. When the amount ingested was reduced 50 per cent, the plasma concentration fell to about 0.4 mg. per cent. At this level, although the tissues were not saturated, there were no signs of deficiency and these investigators considered 0.4 mg. the lower limit for normal plasma. Blumharter and Robbins (1940) found that more than 120 mg. were required daily to maintain the plasma level at 1.4 mg. per cent. On the other hand, von Drigalski and others have observed less constant relationship between intake and plasma concentration of ascorbic acid. Unquestionably, values over 1 mg. per cent are entirely normal. Deficiency is suggested at 0.5 mg., although definite constitutional factors may affect the plasma level, especially where it is noted that high intake does not result in elevation of the concentration. In ulcerative colitis and other intestinal disturbances the plasma level may be very low (0.1 to 0.3 mg. per cent) with normal or abnormal capillary fragility.

Hawley and her co-workers (1936) have shown with normal subjects that the production of high urinary acidity with ammonium chloride is associated with appreciable increase in the excretion of vitamin C whereas alkalization with sodium bicarbonate markedly diminishes the output. It is possible that the decrease in the latter instance is apparent rather than real, destruction occurring in the alkaline bladder urine. It would seem desirable, however, to supply extra vitamin C in the diet whenever urinary acidification is undertaken. Aspirin sometimes appears to "wash out" ascorbic acid; cyclate therapy in general may well be accompanied by additional dietary vitamin C.

Requirement. The **International Unit** of vitamin C is equivalent to 0.05 mg. of *L*-ascorbic acid. The Sherman unit is approximately 10 times as great. It is customary, however, to express requirements in terms of milligrams rather than in units.

There is general agreement that bare adequacy is in the neighborhood of 20 mg. for infants, 40 mg. for children and 50 to 60 mg. for adults. Since there is every advantage in liberality, at least double these amounts are advisable to provide ample margin against increased individual need and against loss of the vitamin during

storage or processing, which makes it difficult to estimate the intake accurately.

The recommended allowance of the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council is 75 mg. for a man weighing 70 kg. and 70 mg. for women weighing 56 kg. In pregnancy and lactation this is increased to 100 and 150 mg. respectively. For children, the recommended allowance varies from 30 mg. for infants to 100 mg. for youngsters sixteen years of age. These values represent amounts above minimum needed to protect against scurvy, but below those needed for saturation.

Hard labor, fevers, infections (particularly tuberculosis and diphtheria), leukemia, hyperthyroidism and malignancy are known to make greater demands upon the vitamin-C stores. Warren *et al.* (1939) have found that cases of peptic ulcer utilize 20 per cent more ascorbic acid than normals, the daily requirement for maintaining saturation being 0.91 to 1.20 mg. per kilogram of body weight.

Sources and Administration.—Certain observations suggest the possibility of other factors being associated with vitamin C in the common fruit and vegetable sources, although these have not yet been definitely established. For this reason, as with the other vitamins, the natural foods are to be preferred to the purified or synthetic ascorbic acid whenever possible.

Although vitamin C is widely distributed in **fresh** fruits and vegetables, considerable potency is lost during storage, sun-drying, cooking in much water in open kettles, and preserving. The diet should contain an abundance of **fresh** fruits and vegetables to insure an adequate intake of this vitamin.

According to Kirk and Tressler (1940) ascorbic acid is twice as plentiful in strawberries as in orange juice. Raspberries and turnips are equivalent to tomato juice. Blueberries, plums and peaches contain smaller amounts. These investigators detected only a trace of this vitamin in blackberries, cherries, and dewberries. Elliott (1939) found black currant juice to be 50 per cent richer in ascorbic acid than the common citrus fruits.

The citrus fruits and tomato juice (fresh, canned or bottled), although not extraordinarily rich, furnish a convenient source of ascorbic acid. Activity is conserved in canned and frozen grapefruit juice and in frozen orange juice, but deteriorates rapidly on standing in air. "Fully ripe oranges contain more of the vitamin than partially ripe fruit, and that exposed to sunlight is richer than that from the shaded side of the tree. The vitamin-C content of a given variety of orange decreases progressively as the season advances."—Munsell (1940). A dozen oranges of uniform size and appearance purchased from a single bin in a store in Washington, D. C., were found by the Bureau of Home Economics to range in vitamin-C content from 24 to 60 mg. of ascorbic acid per 100 cc. of juice.

"In apples, the vitamin is concentrated in the skin and in the flesh just under the skin. Since the proportion of skin to flesh is

water in small than in large apples, a small apple contains more vitamin C in proportion to its weight than a large one." - Munsell (1940).

Fresh pineapple juice frequently is no more than half as potent as ascorbic acid as orange juice; the canned product is still less active. Fresh guava juice is equivalent to fresh pineapple juice (Miller and Robbins, 1936).

Milk fresh from the cow has a good supply of vitamin C, but by the time it is bottled and delivered to the consumer little of this vitamin remains. Its destruction is said to be brought about by riboflavin in the presence of light and air. Hand and his co-workers (1939) have devised a method for bottling milk in a vacuum so that it retains its ascorbic acid. Such milk contains enough vitamin C to prevent the development of scurvy if a quart is ingested daily. According to Pratt (1940) pasteurization of milk in an atmosphere of CO₂ conserves its vitamin-C content. The ascorbic acid in human milk, unlike that in cow's milk, is believed to be combined in part with protein; this union is broken by boiling (Albrecht, 1939).

Although raw meats (especially organs) may contain considerable vitamin C, practically all activity is lost during cooking.

Under ordinary circumstances, ample vitamin C can be provided in its natural state in various foods. This is impractical, however, where large doses are required. Ascorbic acid is available for oral or parenteral use, doses of 50 to 500 mg. daily being common. An initial dose of 1 gram is frequently employed. Where prompt response is not encountered with oral therapy, the possibility of ineffective absorption must be considered even though there is no apparent reason for expecting it. Parenteral administration, therefore, is favored particularly in initial treatments.

VITAMIN D.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—According to Bills (1938) there are at least ten substances possessing some antirachitic activity. All are secondary alcohols with a typical alicyclic structure (that is, ring compounds with straight chain characteristics). With the possible exception of cholesterol, the various forms require irradiation to produce an antirachitic effect. In this process the complex nucleus is ruptured and the products are no longer sterols, though often regarded as such. When ergosterol is irradiated, the result is calciferol or **vitamin D₂**. Cholesterol when so treated first becomes 7-dehydrocholesterol, then the ring is broken with the formation of **vitamin D₃**. Vitamin D₄ is obtained by irradiation of 22-dihydroergosterol and is 22-dihydrocalciferol. The fifth well-known member of the vitamin-D series is irradiated dehydrositosterol. The two forms most abundant in the preparations available for clinical use are D₂ and D₃.

Calciferol or D₂ (irradiated ergosterol) is a colorless, crystalline substance soluble in oils but not in water. It is not regularly

affected by oxygen, dilute alkali nor acid. Calciferol is destroyed by steam in the presence of mineral acids. It is stable to heat and light. Ultra-violet irradiation of ergosterol produces several isomers in addition to calciferol (lumisterol, tachysterol, toxisterol, etc.) which are not only without antirachitic activity but which may have undesirable or toxic effects. Overirradiation destroys the antirachitic vitamin and results in end-products which are highly toxic. Although relatively stable to heat and oxidation, the provitamins give a better yield on irradiation if oxygen is withheld during exposure.

In general, ergosterol is the precursor of vitamin D in vegetable organisms, and calciferol or D_2 is the form of vitamin D produced by irradiation of substances of vegetable origin, while D_3 (activated cholesterol) is the form derived from animal sources. Since vitamin D_3 is found in fish-liver oils, it is sometimes referred to as **natural vitamin D**.

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Vitamin D exerts a curative effect on rickets. Precursors (as cholesterol) in the skin are transformed into active vitamin by solar irradiation. Rays shorter than 3200 Angstrom units prevent and cure rickets. Irradiation of the skin by wave lengths shorter than 2800 Å are harmful to the skin. The lower limit of summer sunlight is about 2900 Å. Hou cited by Clouse, gives as the seat of activation the sebaceous secretion of the skin, since light falling upon skin cleansed with ether prior to exposure confers little protection. Because pigmentation of the skin reduces its permeability to sunlight, negro babies and dark-skinned races require more ultra-violet for prevention or cure of rickets than do white children. The vitamin is absorbed when administered by massage with cod-liver oil or other fats containing it.

Vitamin D is necessary for normal bone formation by the osteoblastic tissues and for normal retention of calcium and phosphorus in the animal body. It tends to protect dental and bone structure against the effects of a low dietary calcium intake by promoting better utilization of available calcium and phosphorus, and it tends to stabilize calcium and phosphorus metabolism at normal levels when the dietary intake varies markedly or is disproportionate. Ordinarily, when calcium intake is forced the serum calcium rises and the phosphorus level falls, but addition of vitamin D restores normal levels. The interrelationship between this vitamin and mineral metabolism is discussed elsewhere (page 117.)

Calciferol seems to increase the absorption of calcium and this in turn favors phosphorus absorption. It raises the blood serum calcium slowly. Dihydratachysterol, which is used in the treatment of tetany to restore low serum calcium to a normal level, also increases the absorption of calcium, but it is not anti-rachitic. The effect of therapeutic doses of vitamin D, dihydratachysterol (A. T. 10), and parathyroid extract upon the behavior of calcium and phosphorus has been depicted by Shohl (1939) utilizing data from Albright (1938–1939.)

	Calcium in serum.	Phosphate in serum.	Calcium absorption.	Phosphate excretion.
Vitamin D	+	+++	+++	+
A. T. 10	++	++	+	+++
Parathyroid extract	+++	—	○	++++

The actual mechanism whereby vitamin D enables the body to deposit adequate amounts of bone salts is not known. In rickets there is no impairment in the ability of the bone to become calcified. The reaction encountered by ingested food as it passes through the alimentary canal determines in part the fate of calcium and phosphorus. Acidity increases solubility whereas alkalinity reduces it. Acidity of the absorbing area, therefore, is requisite for utilization of these elements. On the other hand, increased acidification of the urine leads to increased excretion, particularly of the calcium. Those diets which yield a metabolic residue which is acidic tend to reduce the body's stores of calcium and phosphorus.

Hamilton *et al.* (1933, 1937) found that "rachitogenic" diets supplemented with organic acids (sodium citrate, sodium tartrate, sodium bitartrate, citric acid, tartaric acid—in the order of their effectiveness) failed to produce rickets in rats. On the other hand, non-rachitogenic diets could be made so by addition of a mixture of ammonium chloride and ammonium carbonate. In part this may be said to demonstrate that intestinal acidity enhances the absorption of calcium and phosphorus whereas alkalinity hinders it and that metabolic alkalinity (from formation of carbonates from the organic acids) aids in the retention of these elements while increased urinary acidity aids in their excretion.

Shohl¹ (1937) considers that these results are not due solely to the acid-base relationship of the diet, but to a possible specific anti-rachitogenic effect of the organic acids. In his experiments, citric acid gave a more pronounced effect than tartaric acid.

When fats are not utilized, fatty acids become available for the formation of insoluble calcium soaps which are excreted in the feces. Fatty diarrhea and celiac disease, therefore, may be accompanied by rickets.

Mellanby was the first to suggest that vitamin D functioned in the prevention of dental caries. Although McBeath (1937) has confirmed this relationship, the mode of action is still obscure, and it should be mentioned that many investigators have been unable to prevent caries by the administration of vitamin D.

Clinical Estimation of Deficiency.—The diagnosis of vitamin D deficiency is based upon the clinical picture of rickets, upon Roentgen-ray evidence of defective bone formation at the epiphyses, and upon blood serum calcium, phosphorus and phosphatase levels. In rickets the inorganic phosphorus falls to half its normal level; the calcium usually is slightly low. Normal serum calcium varies from 9 to 11 mg. per cent. The inorganic phosphorus varies with age; for infants 5 to 6 mg. are normal, for children 4 to 5 mg., and for adults 3.5 to 4 mg. P per 100 cc. Therapeutic measures for rickets

¹Shohl, A. T.: *Mineral Metabolism*. New York Reinhold Publishing Corp., 1939.

are generally held to be efficacious if the calcium remains above 9 mg. and the phosphorus above 5 mg. per cent. When the product of these two values ($\text{Ca} \times \text{P}$) falls to 30 or lower, rickets usually is present. Hypervitaminosis D is evidenced by elevation of the serum calcium and phosphorus to as much as 50 per cent above normal.

Phosphatase has been determined by a number of different methods. Probably the most commonly employed procedure in America is the original Bodansky method (1932-1933) or some modification. Normal adults vary from 1.5 to 4 Bodansky units, averaging 2.7; normal children show a range from 5 to 12 units, averaging 8. The enzyme activity reaches 20 to 30 units in mild and 60 or more in severe rickets. The pronounced deviation from normal phosphatase activity renders its determination of great value. If the therapy employed is effective, a definite decrease is noted in three to four days; during active repair, high normal values are encountered. Treatment should be continued for some time after the normal level has been reached to insure complete healing.

Requirement.—The vitamin D requirement varies with the amount of solar or artificial irradiation received, with the amounts of calcium and phosphorus in the diet, and with the proportion between calcium and phosphorus. With better than average ingestion of these minerals in the ratio of 1:1 the need for vitamin D is diminished (p. 117). To quote Jeans and Stearns (1939): "It appears from available evidence that vitamin D is not as well utilized on a unit for unit basis from the more concentrated preparations as from those preparations in which it is more widely dispersed. The most desirable concentration has not been determined, but apparently the concentration found in cod-liver oil is as effective as any lesser concentration studied." Stating the requirements in terms of a concentration no greater than that encountered in average high-grade cod-liver oil, Jeans and Stearns recommend 300 to 400 U.S.P. units for both artificially and naturally fed human infants, although the latter is known to require less. Premature infants should receive twice this daily dose during the early period of most rapid growth. This same allowance (300 to 400 units) is satisfactory for school children who also receive at least 750 cc. of milk daily. There is evidence that activated cholesterol, as found in fish oils, egg yolk and irradiated milk, is more effective, unit for unit, than calciferol (viosterol) in the prevention and cure of human rickets.

The vitamin-D requirement, as well as that of calcium and phosphorus, is increased by rapid growth to such an extent that when young infants are growing rapidly it may be impossible, even with adequate supplements of calcium, phosphorus and vitamin D, to prevent some transitory evidence of rickets at the epiphyses. Apparently, the growth stimulus may be so great that calcification is unable to keep pace with bone growth.

Little is known about the adult's requirement for vitamin D, no definite pathologic changes having been correlated with such de-

ency in the adult. It is quite likely, however, that the vitamin necessary for the maintenance of normal health and resistance. The beneficial effect of solar or artificial ultra-violet irradiation and cod-liver oil upon health and resistance, and their usefulness in the treatment of tuberculosis and other diseases are well established; there is reason to believe that this is not due solely to the vitamin A of cod-liver oil but that the vitamin D and perhaps other sterols contribute to it.

During pregnancy and lactation at least 800 units daily should be provided; exact information regarding the requirement in these conditions is not yet available.

The **U.S.P.** and **International Unit** of vitamin D is equivalent to 0.25 microgram of calciferol. Other units, now rarely used, include the Steenbock, American Drug Manufacturers' Association (A.D.M.A.) and Oslo units (refer to p. 834).

Sources and Administration.—Irradiated yeast and milk from cows fed with such yeast (so-called metabolized milk) contain vitamin D₂ since this results whenever ergosterol is subjected to ultra-violet treatment. On the other hand, vitamin D₃ predominates in fish liver oils, in eggs from hens fed cod-liver oil, and in irradiated milk and milk fortified with fish-oil concentrates (Zucker process). This is due to the fact that 7-dehydrocholesterol is the chief agent found in animal sterols. It is this form of vitamin D which presumably is generated in the skin under the action of sunlight. The fish-liver oils, however, probably contain a multiplicity of forms. Despite the fact that green vegetables are grown in sunlight, they are practically devoid of antirachitic potency. Mushrooms, yeasts, and molds contain appreciable amounts of ergosterol which responds to irradiation. Irradiated ergosterol is sometimes added to commercial cake and bread. It is stated that 6 slices of bread, so fortified, contain as much vitamin D as 1 teaspoonful of cod-liver oil. Cereals have been successfully fortified, but the amount of vitamin per serving is so small as to be negligible.

Irradiated milk is a desirable form of vitamin-D fortification. A large percentage of evaporated milks on the market are "vitaminized." An increasing number of dairies sell milk enriched with vitamin D. As stated by Nelson (1938) fish which contain much body fat, such as salmon, sardines and herring, are the richest natural sources; eggs are next in importance; milk fat and meat products contain some vitamin D. Outstanding sources are the fish-liver oils, and it is well to be guided by the years of experience which have given cod-liver oil its place as a vitamin source. In this connection, one should remember that cod-liver oil is not only an excellent source of vitamin D, but that it is also rich in vitamin A and that, as previously mentioned, the other sterols, lipoids and fat-soluble substances contained in it may well prove to contribute to its nutritional value.

Lindsay and Mottram (1939) advocate using cod-liver oil as an ingredient in any dish which already contains fish. If this subter-

fuge is not revealed by the cook, the comestible usually is acceptable. For the low income groups, herring and canned salmon probably provide in an average serving adequate vitamin D for the adult's daily need.

Since most foods contain little or no vitamin D, exposure of the body to ultra-violet light or the use of fish-liver oils or vitamin D concentrates is necessary for therapeutic dosage. Like vitamin A, the fat-soluble D may be introduced into the body by application to the skin. It is not the province of this text to review the many pharmaceutical preparations which are available to the physician. Needless to say, only those which have been standardized and whose potency is clearly stated should be employed.

Cod-liver oil is required by the U. S. Pharmacopœia to contain at least 85 U.S.P. units per gram. As computed by Nelson (1939) a teaspoonful contains at least 312 units, calculated on the basis that this amounts to 4 cc. and the oil has a specific gravity of 0.92.

Overdosage of Vitamin D.—Vitamin-D concentrates should be regarded as medication, not food. Overdosage has been shown to produce toxic effects and abnormal calcium deposits in animal experiments. According to Shohl (1938) the renal tubules, blood-vessels, heart, bronchi, and stomach are the organs most affected by metastatic calcification. These tissues and the liver undergo degeneration. Since these changes are associated with elevated serum calcium and inorganic phosphorus levels, their determination may serve as a warning of excessive therapy.

The symptoms brought on by "vitamin-D" toxicity appear about two weeks after the high dosage begins (Maynard, 1938). The patient is nauseated, dizzy, and experiences tingling sensations in the extremities. There may also be vomiting, diarrhea and polyuria. It is not yet established whether these toxic symptoms and the abnormal calcium deposits in the tissues are due entirely to overdosage of vitamin D or whether they are caused by the presence of undesirable side-products of the irradiation process. Preparations of ergosterol, improperly irradiated, contain toxisterol, so named because of its effect. There is some evidence that large doses of cod-liver oil or irradiated cholesterol are less toxic than irradiated ergosterol (viosterol).

It has also been reported that doses of viosterol and of vitamin D of animal origin which are equivalent for the rat are not equivalent for the human infant, the cholesterol derivatives being more effective. Since vitamin-D preparations are standardized on the rat, this would mean that fewer units would be required of the fish-oil derivatives than of viosterol for adequate protection.

Enormous doses of vitamin D have been recommended for the treatment of arthritis and other conditions in the adult. It cannot be taken for granted that such dosage levels are devoid of harmful possibilities; doses larger than 1000 to 3000 U.S.P. units daily should not be administered without careful consideration and supervision.

VITAMIN E.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Vitamin E, like vitamin D, appears to include a number of different forms of a parent substance—several separate factors. Several tocopherols have been obtained, the most potent being the alpha form which occurs as a light yellow viscous oil. The name is derived from the Greek, *to bear spring*. Ferric chloride oxidizes α -tocopherol to α -tocoquinone which still possesses vitamin-E potency equal to the tocopherol (Emerson *et al.*, 1939). If oxidation proceeds further, there is loss of activity. The vitamin was originally obtained from wheat-germ oil as α -tocopherol *allophanate* and as such is commercially available. Vitamin E is fat-soluble and, like vitamins A and D, is not saponifiable. Cooking, drying, steam distillation, and sterilization have no harmful effect. The vitamin is stable to ordinary light, but is destroyed by prolonged ultra-violet irradiation. Aëration at 97° C. for twelve hours does not destroy it, yet vitamin E is extraordinarily sensitive to slight and obscure oxidative changes in the fats which serve as its vehicle. Vitamin E is usually inactivated if included in a diet containing lard due to rapid development of rancidity. The vitamin is not affected by acids, alkalies, or hydrogenation. The influence of air or mild oxidizing agents is not serious but ozone, chlorine, permanganate and ferric chloride destroy it. Either vitamin E or some agent found with it tends to protect vitamin A against oxidation.

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Vitamin E is concerned in the female with the blood supply and nutrition of the embryo, and in the male with the maintenance of testicular function. Inadequacy of vitamin E in the male rat has been found to increase the production of gonad-stimulating hormone by the anterior pituitary and increase its content of basophilic cells, an effect similar to that produced by castration.

Wheat-germ oil, the outstanding source of vitamin E, possesses some property whereby it may be helpful in the prevention of abortion but the subject is highly controversial, particularly in its application to human beings. Vogt-Møller has reported two series of 40 (1933) and 52 (1936) cases in which no anatomic or physiologic abnormality could explain repeated abortion. Administration of a daily dose of 3 grams of purified wheat-germ oil resulted in the birth of living children in 17 and 38 cases respectively (cited by Mattill, 1939). Other authors have likewise reported varying degrees of success in the treatment of habitual abortion with vitamin-E preparations. The evidence thus far available, however, can hardly be considered sufficient to establish the human need for this factor.

The term "antisterility" is to a degree misleading since in experimental vitamin-E deficiency pathologic results occur which are totally unrelated to sterility or fertility; other tissues may require vitamin E especially during periods of rapid growth. It is possible that lack of vitamin E strikes directly at the nuclei of rapidly growing cells producing irreversible damage in the structural frame-

work. Mason (1933) inclines to the view that this vitamin is intimately related to the behavior of the nucleus in cell division.

Nutritional muscular dystrophy and encephalomalacia in various animals has been studied for a decade by Goettsch and Pappenheimer. For these conditions α -tocopherol is specifically preventive and protective. The manifestation of vitamin-E deficiency seems to be different in each species studied. Furthermore, in any one group all or only a portion may develop the disease, some progressing rapidly, others slowly. Severe lesions may exist without symptoms. There are marked individual differences in the amount required for protection. Nutritional deficiency in the parents may not be manifest but paralysis may occur in their offspring due to advanced lesions of the skeletal muscles.

Einarson and Ringsted (1938) have described degenerative changes in the posterior spinal roots, posterior columns, anterior horns and pyramidal tracts in vitamin-E deficient rats, with consequent muscular dystrophy and atrophy. They have suggested the analogy of the lesions with human muscular dystrophies and clinical reports would indicate that in some of these degenerative conditions of unknown etiology vitamin-E therapy has led to improvement.

It is the opinion of Morgulis *et al.* (1938, 1939) that both the fat- and water-soluble fractions of wheat-germ are necessary to prevent nutritional muscular dystrophy. The specific agents necessary are held to be vitamin E and probably vitamin B₄.

According to Evans (1939) there is an established relationship between vitamin E and normality of the cross-striated (voluntary) musculature of the body. In the suckling young of experimental E-deficient animals, death often appears suddenly without premonitory signs and can be prevented by α -tocopherol. Degeneration also occurs in the walls of the vascular trunks supplying the brain in vitamin-E deficiency.

Alimentary exudative diathesis is also a consequence of E-avitaminosis (Dam and Glavind, 1939). This edema, largely subcutaneous, has no apparent connection with encephalomalacia. It is associated with a low-fat, protein-deficient diet. Less vitamin E is required to offset this condition than the cerebral disease.

The clinical investigation of vitamin-E therapy is in its infancy. This vitamin is being used in the treatment of muscular dystrophy, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, peroneal muscular atrophy, amyotonia congenita, locomotor ataxia, and in infantile paralysis (Bicknell, 1940; Wechsler, 1940; and Stone, 1940). Some believe that the appearance of locomotor ataxia may be due to deficiency of vitamin E which is causing degeneration of nerve tracts already weakened by syphilis.

These newer studies which have immeasurably widened the sphere of vitamin-E activity render the term *antisterility vitamin* obsolete, since the neuromuscular function of this vitamin may prove to be of major importance. The view that the effects of vitamin-E deficiency are produced by hormonal imbalance is not supported by experimental evidence (Drummond, 1939).

Requirement.—There is no established unit for vitamin E, but it is customary to express the potency of its sources in terms of the International Unit which is based upon the minimum requirement whereby normal rat litters are obtained when the test dose is administered during the first few days of gestation.

Nothing is known about the human requirement for vitamin E, aside from such reports as Vogt-Møller's, there is little or no evidence that vitamin-E deficiency is ever responsible for human sterility. Further work on the relationship of vitamin E to the muscular dystrophies should help to clarify the subject.

Sources and Administration.—Dietary vitamin E is adversely affected by much lard or cod-liver oil. The potency of milk powder which is stored in air for long periods diminishes, but this is not true of storage in deoxygenated air (Supplee and Dow, 1925). Butter contains vitamin E. Definite data as to the extent to which the human dietary may supply vitamin E are still lacking. So far as is known, there is an abundance of this vitamin in natural foods. Since degerminated cereal products play an important part in modern diets, the loss of this source of supply may perhaps be significant, as it is in the case of thiamin. Unless the supply of vitamin E is more than adequate from other sources the possibility of deficiency exists. With advances in our knowledge of this factor, borderline deficiencies may be discovered to be more common than at present supposed.

The richest sources of vitamin E are green leaves and embryos of seeds or oils therefrom (barley, corn, cottonseed, flax, hempseed, red clover, almond, peanut, rice, soybean and wheat). Smaller amounts occur in fat and muscle tissue, milk and eggs.

If it is desired to assure a high vitamin-E intake, the diet should be supplemented with wheat-germ. Capsules of wheat-germ oil are also available as a rich source of this factor. Since some of these preparations have been shown to be unstable and variable as to vitamin-E potency, only those which have been tested for activity should be used. According to Shute (1938) wheat-germ oil even if refrigerated to prevent deterioration is not reliable after eight weeks. Stable preparations of whole wheat-germ are preferable; 1 ounce of wheat-germ furnishes about 3 grams of the oil. Defatted wheat-germ should, of course, be avoided when vitamin E is required.

Wechsler and others have treated the neuromuscular atrophies and dystrophies with synthetic α -tocopherol, with definite evidence of improvement, using both oral and parenteral routes. But in view of the impression that "vitamin E" may be actually a complex of multiple factors, it would seem preferable, when the synthetic preparation is used, to employ with it wheat-germ oil, or, better, wheat-germ itself.

VITAMIN K.

Physical and Chemical Properties.—Dam's "Koagulations-vitamin" (1935) has been chemically identified (1939) by two different groups of investigators (Doisy, Fieser). Active agents are 1, 4-

naphthoquinones or substances capable of yielding such quinones under biologic oxidation. Because of its oily character, vitamin K has not been used intravenously. Doisy, however, has produced water-soluble compounds equal in potency to vitamin K which are suitable for parenteral or oral therapy without bile salts.

Vitamin K occurs in the non-sterol fraction of the unsaponifiable fat and resembles vitamin E in solubility and resistance to heat (Osterberg, 1938). It is destroyed by alkalies and certain substances which bring about oxidation (Munsell, 1940). Although vitamin K is rapidly inactivated by light, whether natural or artificial, when dissolved in benzene, ethyl alcohol or acetone, crude alfalfa extracts are fairly stable toward light (MacQorquodale, 1939).

Physiologic Action and Deficiency Effects.—Vitamin K has been deemed essential for the synthesis of prothrombin. The mechanism whereby this vitamin increases the plasma prothrombin has not yet been elucidated. It seems to be definitely established that bile is required for the absorption of vitamin K. Desiccated bile produces better results than the prepared bile salts when administered in conjunction with vitamin-K concentrates.

The blood of the new-born does not clot readily and hemorrhagic disease is not uncommon. Although the prothrombin content of the plasma varies widely until the fifth day after birth, a low concentration is the rule and in some instances the blood is peculiarly deficient in prothrombin particularly between the ages of forty-eight and seventy-two hours. Intracranial hemorrhage not infrequently originates from even moderate trauma during delivery with disastrous consequences. The use of vitamin-K concentrates has been suggested for both mother and child to check such bleeding (Waddell and Guerry, 1939).

For the production and maintenance of vitamin-K levels in the body there are four requisites: a well-balanced diet, an adequate flow of bile, a functioning intestinal absorbing area, and a physiologically normal liver. Primary vitamin K deficiency probably is not common. Under ordinary conditions a nutritional deficiency would be slow in developing and would be easily corrected.

Biliary obstruction appears to result in failure of vitamin-K absorption with subsequent decrease in plasma prothrombin. The tendency to hemorrhage in jaundiced patients under operation is a matter of much concern. Vitamin K functions particularly well in the prevention of the slow oozing which is characteristic of cholemic bleeding.

Vitamin K has not been of benefit in hemorrhagic diathesis which is not associated with low-prothrombin levels in the blood.

Clinical Estimation of Deficiency.—Suitability of a patient for vitamin-K therapy is determined by the prothrombin clotting time of the blood by Quick's procedure (1936) or modifications by Smith *et al.* (1939). The latter is a bedside test which constitutes a practical measure of the tendency to bleed. "Bleeding time" and even "clotting time" as ordinarily determined do not provide a satis-

tory guide as to blood prothrombin content. Administration of vitamin K and bile products promptly (that is, within a day) restores the clotting activity (as judged by prothrombin clotting time) to normal levels.

Requirement.—No data are at hand for estimating the requirement of vitamin K. Its present use is restricted to therapeutic prescriptions for abnormal conditions.

Sources and Administration.—The fat-soluble vitamin K occurs in cod-liver and soybean oils, spinach, kale, carrot tops, cabbage, cauliflower, tomatoes and egg-yolk. The antihemorrhagic factor which occurs in green leaves in large quantities apparently is not affected by withering or yellowing of the leaves. Flowers, roots and seeds contain much less than green leaves (citation from Daniel, 1940). Dried alfalfa leaf meal and putrefied sardine meal are good sources of this vitamin. Evidently it can be synthesized under bacterial action. Cod-liver oil, wheat-germ and wheat-germ oil do not exert any antihemorrhagic effect. It is noteworthy that although vitamin K can be derived from fish meal, it is not found in cod-liver oils.

Rhoads recommends daily oral doses of 1 to 4 mg. of 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone together with bile salts (either iron bile salts, 1 to 2 grams, or sodium desoxycholate, 0.015 to 0.4 gram *per* *mm*). Frank *et al.* use intravenously a 10-mg. dose of synthetic vitamin K₁ in obstructive jaundice to obtain normal clotting time within four hours.

VITAMIN P

In 1936 Szent-Györgyi and his co-workers described a substance present in extracts of paprika and lemon peel which tended to correct abnormally increased permeability of capillaries. To this substance or possibly group of substances, they gave the name "Vitamin P". A crystalline extract obtained from lemons was named "Citrus". The exact chemical nature of vitamin P is not known. Citrus is believed to contain the flavone dyes, hesperidin and eriodictyol glucoside and has been shown to bring about a decrease in capillary permeability. Another flavone glucoside, called Rutin, has been obtained from tobacco and young flowering buckwheat. In its pure state, this substance has about 10 times the activity of crude hesperidin. It has been demonstrated by Scarborough that patients, suffering from nutritional deficiencies in which a low capillary resistance was present, improved following the administration of hesperidin or other vitamin P containing substances but did not improve with the administration of ascorbic acid. On the other hand, the ecchymosis and gingival hemorrhages of scurvy responded to vitamin C but not to vitamin P. Scarborough concluded that the specific manifestation of vitamin P deficiency is an increase in capillary permeability distinct from the increased capillary fragility which is seen in scurvy in which there is actual rupture of the capillary walls resulting in genuine hemorrhages. The former is corrected by vitamin P but is unaffected by ascorbic acid while the

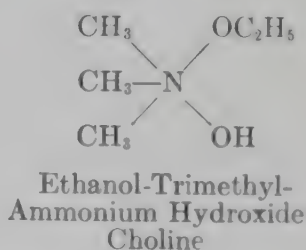
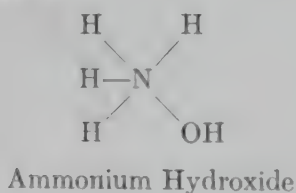
reverse is true of the latter. There is at present no satisfactory procedure for the determination of vitamin P deficiency. For clinical purposes use is made of the Rumpel-Leede phenomenon, using positive pressure or the modified Hecht test using negative pressure.

There are numerous conditions in which increased capillary permeability may be found, including vitamin deficiencies, hypertension, purpura, toxic states and scurvy. At the present time clinical results obtained with the use of vitamin P substances leave much to be desired.

For therapeutic purposes where vitamin P is indicated, rutin may be employed in dosages from 20 to 60 mg. 3 or 4 times daily for several weeks.

CHOLINE

Choline is included among the factors of the vitamin B complex, although many investigators in the field feel that it is not a true vitamin substance, since symptoms of so called "choline deficiency" may, in fact, be due to a lack of methyl groups which choline may normally supply, but which can be derived in adequate quantities from other substances which also contain this radicle. Choline is a base, comparable in strength to sodium hydroxide, and may be considered structurally as a derivative of ammonium hydroxide in which three hydrogens have been replaced by methyl groups and the fourth hydrogen by an ethoxy radicle (C_2H_5O). Choline may thus be considered as ethanol-trimethyl-ammonium hydroxide. The following is its structural formula along with that of ammonium hydroxide:—



Choline forms part of the molecule of lecithin and sphingomyelin, both important phospholipids concerned in the cell structure of both plants and animals, so that choline containing substances are found widely distributed in nature. Some of the best sources are liver, wheat, egg yolk, milk, brain, heart, kidney and soybeans.

Most species of laboratory animals, fed a diet high in cholesterol or fat but low in choline and proteins, will develop fatty livers as well as hemorrhagic degeneration of the kidneys together with hemorrhage into the eyeballs and other organs. This is particularly true of weanlings whose need for methyl groups seems to be greater than that of older animals. Choline is concerned physiologically with the transport of fat from the liver through the formation of soluble phospholipids. It must be noted, however, that choline may be synthesized by the animal from methionine derived from

in, thus, symptoms of "choline deficiency" would at the same imply a deficiency of methionine. It appears, therefore, that manifestations of "choline deficiency" are in fact due to a methyl deficiency from any source rather than lack of choline.

In the treatment of cirrhosis of the liver, where choline has been in conjunction with high protein, high carbohydrate diets along with adequate vitamin supplements, improvement has been noted. In such cases improvement has also been found to occur even when choline is omitted from the routine. It is more than likely that in these instances the presence of methionine supplies the methyl groups necessary for the synthesis of choline within the body. On the other hand Russakoff and Blumberg (1944) cited three cases which showed no improvement on a high protein diet alone but which showed distinct benefit within a week after instituting choline therapy. Choline chloride was given after meals in doses as high as 10 grams daily, one patient taking this amount for six months without any untoward effect. Morrison (1946) was able to show encouraging results by the employment of a high protein, high carbohydrate, low fat diet along with the use of liver extract and vitamins. He gave his patients a combination of 2 grams of methionine and 2 grams of choline daily. These substances were combined in a capsule and given in divided doses. Cases in which large liver (fatty infiltration) is demonstrated are apt to show improvement, whereas those without liver enlargement (fibrosis) do not show beneficial results.

VITAMIN INTER-RELATIONSHIPS AND ANTAGONISTS

It is now well recognized that the fat soluble vitamins occur in groups composed of homologous substances, all of which tend to exert the same physiologic effect in the organism. Thus we have vitamins A, several vitamins K, the three vitamins E and the ten sterides, all of which have vitamin D or antirachitic activity. In the B complex group, it is now recognized that pyridoxine has two homologues, pyridoxal and pyridoxamine, both of which exert physiologic effects similar to pyridoxine. Niacin also has two homologues, niacin amide and diethyl nicotinamide, which demonstrate antipellagra activity. The various substances thus mentioned which exert similar physiologic activity do so because they all contain similar fundamental basic chemical structures, and in some way are responsible for the activity of the compound. Another type of vitamin inter-relationship, however, is now well established, although the necessary connecting link is not always evident. Illustrative of this type of inter-relationship should be mentioned the observation of Oppen, that rats receiving large doses of vitamin D, demonstrated arterial calcification which was not present in a group of control animals receiving the same dose of vitamin D as well as a simultaneous dose of vitamin A. He thus

concluded that a lack of vitamin A may be responsible for the production of the vitamin D toxicity.

Holmes and Pigott, reported that rats on a vitamin E deficient diet could be improved by the administration of large doses of thiamin chloride while Milhorat and Bartels, demonstrated synergistic action between inositol and vitamin E during the course of treating patients with muscular dystrophy. Davies and Moore noted also that rats on a diet deficient in both vitamins A and E used up their vitamin A reserves much more rapidly than control groups of rats on a vitamin A deficient diet who were receiving alpha-tocopherol. Hickman, Harris and Woodside published the results of their investigations which demonstrated a pronounced synergistic effect between vitamins A and E.

Sure, Theis and Harrelson showed that rats deficient in vitamin A had a reduced vitamin C content of the heart, kidney and thymus while Boyer showed that vitamin A deficient rats excrete very much less vitamin C in the urine than rats who are not vitamin A deficient. It has been also shown that vitamin A deficient cattle cannot synthesize normal amounts of vitamin C. Sure, Theis and Harrelson also showed that in both thiamin and riboflavin deficiency, marked loss of vitamin C was noted in lung, kidney and liver tissue.

Supplee, Jensen, Bender and Kohlenberg showed that thiamin and panthothenic acid deficiency influenced the mobilization of riboflavin in the liver. Sure and Ford showed that an inter-relationship exists between thiamin and riboflavin. It appears that a thiamin deficiency results in poor riboflavin retention, thereby producing a multiple deficiency where only thiamin is deficient in the diet. As a corollary, it would seem that adequate thiamin intake would protect against both thiamin and riboflavin deficiency. Darby, Kaser and Jones (1947) showed that folic acid promotes the absorption of vitamin A and carotene in patients suffering from sprue.

Another type of relationship exists between vitamins, as well as between vitamins and non-vitamin substances. As an example of the former, Martin showed a reciprocal antagonism between para-aminobenzoic acid and inositol, while an example of the latter is the well known antagonism between para-aminobenzoic acid and the sulphonamides. Woods and Fields explained this last phenomenon on the basis of structural similarity between sulphanilamide and para-aminobenzoic acid, making it possible for either of these substances to combine with an enzyme required by the bacterial cell for growth. It would seem that a competitive state exists when both these substances are present, during which the sulphanilamide has the edge resulting in the formation of an enzyme-sulphanilamide compound not utilized by the bacterial cell, instead of the enzyme-paraaminobenzoic acid combination which it requires for normal nutrition. It should be noted that the addition of an excess of paraaminobenzoic acid to the culture medium negated the effect of sulphanilamide to a large extent. It is of practical interest that the molecule of procaine includes a para-aminobenzoic acid grouping.

h is split off in the body and will produce an antisulphanilamide t. It would thus seem advisable to choose local anesthetics h do not contain the para-aminobenzoic acid group when ating upon patients requiring sulphanilamide therapy. milar vitamin chemical antagonisms are now known to exist een thiamin and pyriethiamin; riboflavin and isoriboflavin; othenic acid and thiopanic acid; biotin and desbiotin; ascorbic and glucoascorbic acid, relationships which may ultimately me of importance in the development of new antibiotic agents. ationship of present practical importance is that of vitamin a the one hand and dicoumarol or salicylic acid on the other.

DISCOVERED VITAMINS: THE USE OF VITAMIN CONCENTRATES AND EXTRACTS.

is certain that still other accessory factors remain to be desired. A diet synthesized from highly purified preparations of h, protein, refined fat, mineral salts, and the known vitamins not maintain as good a rate of growth and development as one hich these substances are supplied by the natural foods; each factor, when added to such synthetic diets, has improved the th rate and condition of animals, but since a food rich in ssory factors, such as milk, wheat-germ or yeast, improves the still further it is evident that there are still missing elements.

is, therefore, not to be expected that a diet of refined foods be made complete by adding to it purified vitamin concentrates. rder to compensate for the unavoidable complement of devita- zed foods in the modern diet, it is necessary to include foods h are especially rich in accessory factors, such as liver, egg- , cereal embryo, milk or yeast. Cereal germ has the advantages eing rich in accessory factors and requiring no cooking. The hich contains meat, eggs, milk or cheese, butter, fresh fruits vegetables, and cereal germ or yeast is probably as nearly quate and complete as the human diet can be under modern itions of food production and distribution.

is necessary to bear in mind the distinction between highly entrated natural sources of the vitamins and the artificially eared extracts and concentrates. We have already referred to cal observations showing that cod-liver oil appears to have a e potent anti-rachitic action than viosterol. Viosterol and irra- ed foods have a definite use, when the need is known to be icted to vitamin D alone and when natural sources are not well rated. The same is true of the vitamin B factors. The pure arations of these factors may be employed when for any reason parent foods from which they are derived cannot be given; they often of value in therapeutics, but for use in constructing an quate normal diet or for fortifying a therapeutic diet the pro- ive foods themselves, when they can be given, are preferable.

uch work remains to be done before we shall be able to say a certainty that any diet is satisfactory and complete in all

necessary nutritional factors: but *we already have sufficient knowledge to bring about an immense improvement in general health and in the effectiveness of our own therapeutic measures.* Ignorance and poverty are the two obstacles which stand in the way, and in combating the former the physician stands in the front line. The clinician interested in nutrition finds a large proportion of his patients eager to understand the relation between diet and health. If he will make them understand the importance of the accessory factors in the maintenance of good health and nutrition, and show them how to ensure an adequate intake of these factors in the diet, he can help to further the great improvement in public health which modern nutritional knowledge makes possible.

SECTION IV.

CLASSIFICATION AND STRUCTURE OF FOODS.

DEFINITIONS.

Nutrition may be defined as the sum of all physical and chemical actions involved in the stimulation of growth and maintenance of proper body function.

The term, *nutritive*, is frequently restricted to the caloric food elements.

Dietetics is the practical application of the principles of nutrition to both health and disease.

*Food*s are those substances which, when taken into the body, supply heat and energy, supply the elements for growth and replacement of worn-out tissue, or serve as metabolic regulators of protoplasmic activity.

FOOD EQUIVALENTS.

Throughout this book, reference is constantly made to the term "calorie." As taught in elementary physics, a calorie is that amount of heat necessary to raise the temperature of 1 cc. of water from 0° to 1° C. In food chemistry a different type of heat unit is used, called the "large Calorie" in contradistinction to the calorie just described, which is termed the "small calorie." The "large Calorie" (food calorie) is the amount of heat necessary to raise 1 kg. (1000 cc.) of water from 0° to 1° C. Based on this definition, the following heat values have been determined:

1 gram carbohydrate yields	4.1 large Calories.
1 gram fat yields	9.3 large Calories.
1 gram protein yields	4.1 large Calories.
1 gram alcohol yields	7.0 large Calories.

It is uncertain whether alcohol is uniquely thermogenic (that is, converted as heat) or is also available for physiologic work, sparing such nutrients as carbohydrates and fats. It is claimed by some that ethyl alcohol is not used as a source of oxidative energy for muscular activity. According to Mitchell (1935), the energy of alcohol is about three-fourths as available for physiologic purposes as sucrose, the difference being attributed to the greater specific dynamic effect of alcohol.

CALORIC REQUIREMENTS.

A review of the literature in reference to man's energetic requirements reveals many discrepancies. When it is considered that sex, weight, height, size (surface area), muscular activity, body temperature, brain activity, together with climate, environmental conditions, etc., alter the requirements, it may readily be seen that no one formula can be applied to the feeding of the human organism.

In spite of the presence of all these variables, some standard must be established in order intelligently to feed the sick or well. The consensus of opinion as to food requirements expressed in the amounts of carbohydrate, protein and fat required by the average person *per diem* is: Carbohydrates, 350 grams; proteins, 100 grams; fats, 150 grams; totaling about 3200 Calories. This energetic requirement is estimated as being necessary for the average working man. Each of these components has been the subject of much divergence of opinion. Recently, an analysis of large groups of non-dieting individuals revealed that the total protein intake *per diem* was closer to 50 than to 100 grams. Booher (1940), however, has stressed the fact that cost is an important deterrent in securing a higher protein intake. As a rule, wage earners *prefer* a diet which provides 110 to 120 grams of protein daily. McCollum (1939) likewise places the adult requirement at this level.

It is estimated that the adult needs:

At rest,	20 to 30 Calories per kilogram
For light exercise,	30 to 40 Calories per kilogram
For moderate exertion,	40 to 45 Calories per kilogram
For heavy labor,	45 to 75 Calories per kilogram

Roughly, this amounts to 10 to 35 Calories per pound, the weight representing the ideal rather than the actual.

For certain purposes, it may be simpler to compute the twenty-four-hour requirement for rest, then to add to it

For light exercise,	50 to 75 Calories per hour of work
For moderate exertion,	75 to 150 Calories per hour of work
For heavy labor,	150 to 300 Calories per hour of work

Calculations such as the foregoing are altered during illness. This is especially true in pyrexia. In the presence of a fever (particularly of long duration) the more modern view has been to increase the daily caloric intake over the calculated requirement, in order to maintain body nutrition. In fevers of short duration, it is accepted as good practice to institute a subnormal caloric diet during the more acute period. Careful studies of 500 diabetics have convinced Rabinowitch (1938) that health may be maintained with much smaller amounts of food than are indicated by current standards.

Number of Meals per Day.—Booher (1940) has raised the question of the desirability of changing from the three-meal system to five meals a day. Sufficient experimental evidence has been obtained to warrant acceptance of the fact that workers are relieved of a feeling of fatigue, irritability and muscular inefficiency by mid-morning and mid-afternoon meals. A well-balanced diet distributed throughout the day is conducive to industrial efficiency and better spirits as judged by investigations of large groups of employees. This constitutes application to normal individuals of a principle long recognized as sound for the peptic ulcer patient, the invalid and the convalescent.

CHEMICAL CONSTITUTION.

oods, in general, may be grouped into two classes: those which nutritive, that is, supply heat and energy to the body, and those which are non-nutritive, providing *per se* no energy and necessary, in some instances, only in infinitesimal amounts for the proper maintenance of body function. The former consist of the carbohydrates, proteins, and fats. The latter include water, mineral salts, and vitamins.

Carbohydrates.—The simple carbohydrates fall into two main groups: (1) Sweet, crystalline compounds soluble in water, such as sugars (their chemical names terminating in -ose); and (2) Tasteless, non-crystalline substances relatively insoluble in water, such as starch, glycogen, dextrin, and inulin. The carbohydrates include polyhydric alcohols with free or potential aldehyde or ketone groups, the insoluble ones being anhydrides of the sugars. The irritant effect of concentrated sugars has been attributed to their solubility. Excessive sweetness also leads to gastric upset. Fructose, which is less soluble than other common sugars and the least sweet, may be substituted with therapeutic benefit for the irritating sugars. Relative sweetness has been determined by Biester *et al.* (1925). Compared to sucrose (designated as 100) other sugars rate as follows:

Fructose	173.3	Maltose	32.5
Invert sugar	130.0	Galactose	32.1
Glucose	74.3	Raffinose	22.6
Xylose	40.0	Lactose	16.0

Refined carbohydrates have less real food value than those in natural state. This is partly due to the loss of minerals and vitamins, accessories, of whose nature we know little, and partly to the addition of deleterious substances in the manufacturing process.

Carbohydrates function in two ways in their relation to fats. A variable amount of sugar is changed into fat and stored as such; the tendency to fat formation is dependent upon individual hereditary forces. Glucose undergoing oxidation acts as a catalyst for the combustion of fats. Without the aid of sugar, fatty acids produce degradation products containing four carbon atoms. If glucose is not being burned, the four-carbon residues, instead of being oxidized to CO_2 and H_2O , accumulate and cause acidosis.

Much light has been thrown on the relationship between carbohydrate and protein metabolism by the experiments of Cuthbertson and Munro (1939). It has been demonstrated on 4 human subjects that when the protein and the carbohydrate moieties of an adequate diet are separately ingested over short periods of time, there is a negative N balance of some 2 grams daily (mainly urea). This loss can be spared if the carbohydrate and protein are ingested together. To produce this sparing effect requires the *close approximation of*

the protein to the carbohydrate, but the nitrogen spared is not necessarily proportional to the amount of carbohydrate present along with the protein. There are two separate aspects to the relationship between carbohydrate and protein: (1) The N-sparing effect of the adequate carbohydrate diet, and (2) the N-saving effect of the surfeit carbohydrate diet. The latter differs from the former in that carbohydrate in excess of energy requirements *ingested any period of the day* is capable in the long run of causing storage of nitrogen and the nitrogen stored is roughly proportional to the amount of surfeit carbohydrate taken. One possible explanation for this behavior involves a special inhibitory action of carbohydrate on the deaminases which operates to prevent loss of amino-acids.

Requirement. Carbohydrates are the chief source of energy in the body. The average daily requirement is 350 to 500 grams. The lowest intake consistent with continued health has not been experimentally determined, but even in diabetics it is not wise to reduce the carbohydrate intake to less than 100 grams per day for any length of time. The employment of 600-Calorie diets in treating obesity may call for as little as 35 grams of carbohydrate daily, but such a regimen should not be undertaken without supervision. The carbohydrate minimum may be placed at 0.6 gram per kilogram for those who are overweight.

Depending upon individual energy requirements, taste and climate, the proportions of the calories derived from carbohydrates will vary from 45 to 75 per cent. In the average diet the carbohydrates contribute 60 to 70 per cent of the total caloric value.

Deficiency.—The ability of the body to store carbohydrates is limited. The liver serves as the general reservoir for such carbohydrates. It is continually tapped to maintain the normal blood-sugar level. Muscle glycogen is reserved for the use of that particular tissue. Reducing diets deplete the supply of liver glycogen and may lay this organ open to irreparable damage. Carbohydrate deficiency leads to acidosis, listlessness, fatigue, lack of resistance and emotional irritability.

Sources.—Glucose is especially plentiful in grapes, young sweet corn, and onions. Young sugar cane contains glucose, fructose, and sucrose in about equal quantities, but the fructose decreases to a trace as the plant matures. Honey is essentially invert sugar (equal amounts of glucose and fructose), although both sucrose and dextrin are present. Fructose occurs in many fruit juices. Its concentration in the tomato and mango is noteworthy. Sucrose is found in most sweet fruits together with glucose and fructose. It is especially abundant in the juice of the cultivated sugar beet, sorghum and sugar cane, and in the sap of the sugar maple. According to Sherman (1935) sucrose has been reported as constituting at least one-half the solid matter of pineapples and of carrots. The physiologic fate of raffinose, a trisaccharide occurring in sugar-beet molasses, is unknown.

Latherwick *et al.* (1940) have reported that d-mannoheptulose appears in the urine of normal persons after eating avocado. This may occur in concentrations high enough to give a "positive" reaction on reduction of the commonly used reagents. Only a small portion of the ingested sugar is accounted for by urinary excretion. Pentoses are present in yeast, plums, prunes, grapes, and cherries. The nutritive value of xylose and rhamnose is not known, but it is possible that ribose is utilized in the formation of body nucleic acids. Physiologic oxidation of these sugars to CO_2 and H_2O is only questionable.

Inulin, the polysaccharide which is hydrolyzed to fructose, is found in chicory, French and Jerusalem artichokes, salsify, and the burdock root (Japanese *gobo*). During storage "inulin" breaks down with the formation of substances hydrolyzable by invertase. True inulin probably is not an available carbohydrate for man (McCance, 1936).

Glycogen occurs in animal tissues, particularly in the liver and muscles. In the assembly of data on the composition of meat, poultry and fish, analysts have regarded the small amount (usually not 1 per cent) of glycogen in muscle as negligible compared to protein and fat concentrations. The amount of glycogen is apt to be exceedingly variable, but its presence should not be ignored. The mollusks are noteworthy for their glycogen content (3 to 5 per cent).

Dextrin occurs in natural and germinating grains, although the chief carbohydrate is starch which may amount to more than one-half of the total solids. Bananas, chestnuts, and potatoes are particularly rich in starch.

Not all carbohydrates can be utilized for energy purposes. Precise knowledge regarding many of the plant polysaccharides is lacking. Crude fiber or cellulose is untouched by the human digestive system. Agar agar is hydrolyzed only to a very limited extent. Pentosans disappear from the intestinal tract, the evidence favoring absorption rather than bacterial attack. The fate of the pentose sugars is debatable. Unassimilable carbohydrates included in the diet to give bulk and to promote regular peristalsis are, of course, without caloric value. Sugars, especially lactose, are frequently prescribed for the bacterial flora of the colon rather than as fuel for the host. Where sugar serves as a substrate for bacterial action, fermentation occurs, the formation of such acids as acetic and butyric favoring alimentary evacuation.

Analyses of foods which include fiber under carbohydrate may be wholly misleading as to caloric value. Starch, particularly, in the native state may be trapped within cellulose walls and so escape digestion. Even sugars may not be utilized by the body because of their carbon configuration. Only a very few experiments have been performed to ascertain the "available" carbohydrate content of foods.

Unavailable Carbohydrates.—Attention is directed particularly to cellulose or crude fiber and to the hemicelluloses which include

the hexopentosans or pectins. On hydrolysis the latter yield both hexose (as galactose) and pentose (as arabinose) as well as galacturonic acid. The pectins must be classed with the colloidal carbohydrates because of their absorptive capacity for water. It is this property which is utilized in treating both diarrhea and constipation (see pp. 138 and 140).

In healthy men, Cowgill and Sullivan (1933) have demonstrated a quantitative relationship between the fiber content of the diet and the degree of laxation. They have placed the physiologic minimum at a daily allowance of 90 to 100 mg. of fiber per kilogram of body weight. In constipation, however, fiber in the diet may undergo decomposition during passage of the alimentary tract and so fail to function in the mechanical stimulation necessary for evacuation. There appears to be marked variation in individual ability to render crude fiber inert in the colon. As a consequence, it may become necessary to prescribe fiber which is resistant to bacterial attack. Commercial bran and, to a lesser extent, processed bran products meet this demand. The average person requires merely an adequate quantity of roughage in the form of vegetables, fruits, and cereals together with a certain amount of fat and plenty of fluid to secure normal removal of intestinal wastes. Those who harbor strains of bacteria capable of disintegrating mixed plant fiber require variable supplements of wheat bran. Where the colon is narrowed, ulcerated or highly irritable, bran is contraindicated and bland diets together with pectins are in order.

Although as much as 50 per cent of the "unavailable" carbohydrate of vegetables and fruits may fail to be excreted in the feces, there is no evidence that glucose is derived therefrom. These polysaccharides are, therefore, best regarded as without caloric value. Their disappearance, however, makes it impractical to depend upon them to furnish intestinal "roughage."

Proteins.—Proteins are the most important of the foodstuffs. Certain animals can subsist on a protein diet, forming from the protein such fat and carbohydrate as they require. The chemical instability and complexity of the proteins are essential for the phenomena of life, since protoplasm is fabricated from these compounds. The proteins differ from the fats and carbohydrates in that they contain nitrogen (in amounts varying from 15 to 17.6 per cent.) The vegetable proteins contain slightly more, the animal proteins slightly less than the average 16 per cent. Sulfur (0.3 to 2.4 per cent) is usually found in the protein molecule and occasionally phosphorus (0.4 to 0.8 per cent). In 100 grams of mixed protein an average of 1 gram of combined sulfur will be found. Other elements, such as iron and iodine, though rarely exceeding 1 per cent, occur in specialized proteins. Iron is an important constituent of hemoglobin, while iodine is an essential component of a protein derivative in the thyroid gland. Iodine is especially common in marine proteins, particularly in the crustaceans and mollusks.

The simple proteins are naturally-occurring substances which on hydrolysis yield α -amino-acids which are crystalloids, most of them being readily soluble in aqueous media. This distinguishes them from the more complex proteins, which are colloids, slightly soluble, if soluble at all, with huge non-diffusible molecules. Proteins vary widely in their amino-acid content, some being composed only of a few of the twenty-two known amino-acids, others containing a great variety. Many of these acids can be manufactured by the body; others must be furnished in the diet and are referred to as "essential." Nine or ten of the amino-acids cannot be elaborated all or fast enough to meet the physiologic need. These include the less well-known members of the family, *viz.*, methionine and threonine. Not only must the "essential" amino-acids be available in the diet, but they must be present in optimum proportions, with the result that some proteins are found to be "adequate," while others fail to sustain body weight or provide for growth. The quality of the dietary protein is as important as the quantity and becomes increasingly so as the quantity is decreased.

Requirement.—The minimum subsistence requirement *per diem* is between 0.5 and 0.7 gram of selected proteins per kilogram of body weight. It is probably safer to regard 1 gram as a minimum because of the inadequacy of certain proteins and the unassimilable nature of part of the food nitrogen. Bed-ridden patients need less than 1 gram of protein per kilogram. If low-protein diets are indicated, two-thirds of the nitrogen should be in the form of animal proteins. According to Sherman, cereal proteins are as efficient as meat proteins, provided milk is included in the dietary. In general, vegetable proteins lack the availability of animal proteins. If both protein and caloric intake are to be limited, skill is necessary in computing a diet which is physiologically satisfactory; otherwise, there will be considerable protein wastage. During the period of active growth the protein allowance should be 2 to 4 grams per kilogram per day.

Deficiency.—Low-protein intake over a period of time leads to improper physiologic distribution of water of which edema is the principal manifestation. There is a drop in the heat production, tissue wastage occurs and anemia results from such protein deficiency. Where the proteins ingested fail to provide certain amino-acids, the elaboration of special agents, such as thyroxin, becomes difficult; this is evident in certain endocrine disturbances.

Sources.—Animal proteins (meat, fish, eggs, cheese, milk) are usually ranked higher than those of plant origin (cereals, nuts, pulses). Neither maximum nor minimum proportions of these two groups have ever been established. Traditional preference and economic necessity have largely determined selection. Until better evidence is available, it is suggested that diets indigenous to the locality be followed, provided they are associated with physical labor. In temperate climates the cereals usually are not an adequate source of protein unless accompanied by generous amounts of dairy products. Booher (1940) recommends that the average

adult select his protein in equal quantity from animal and vegetable sources.

As stressed by Nixon (1938) potatoes are a better crop than wheat from the economic standpoint, since an acre planted with the former will feed twice as many people as one planted with the latter. Although the potato is predominantly a carbohydrate food, tuberin (a globulin) is ranked as a protein superior to those found in the cereals. A liberal amount of potatoes in the diet is preferable to its equivalent in cereals.

The legumes or pulses generally furnish the cheapest source of protein. Although laborers may digest a pound of baked beans per day without discomfort, persons of sedentary habits cannot handle large quantities of leguminous foods (Bailey, 1928). Lentils are supposedly the easiest of the group to digest. Peanut butter is more readily utilized than peanuts ingested as such unless mastication is thorough.

Purins.—Simple protein combines with nuclein to form the nucleoproteins, most widely distributed of the conjugated proteins. The simple protein is hydrolyzed in the body to amino-acids which ultimately become urea, the chief excretory product of protein metabolism. Nuclein, however, is converted into uric acid, a trioxypurin. Foods which contain nucleic acids (and hence the purin ring) are designated as purin foods.

Since uric acid is associated with several pathologic conditions, dietary control of its source may become necessary. High-protein and carbohydrate-rich diets aid in the excretion of exogenous and endogenous uric acid. A high-fat diet and ketogenesis lead to retention of this acid. Uric acid is not only produced within the body by cellular activity (*e. g.*, the elaboration of digestive juices) but is also destroyed, the latter process depending upon the character and quantity of non-purins in the diet.

Requirement.—The body does not require preformed purins in the diet. The infant subsists for many months without dietary purins, yet encounters no difficulty in the synthesis of necessary nucleic acids. Ordinarily the adult ingests daily about 0.2 gram of nitrogen in the form of purins. This amount may be considerably lowered without any ill-effect being noted. It may be increased threefold without apparent harm to normal individuals.

Sources.—All animal foods except milk, cheese and eggs contain purins. Glandular organs are exceedingly rich in nuclein. It is doubtful whether the methylated purins (caffeine, theobromine and theophylline) are a source of uric acid in the body. The increased uric acid excretion noted after caffeine administration may be due to increased renal activity rather than to formation of uric acid from the caffeine.

Fats.—Fats and related substances, known collectively as the lipoids, are widely distributed in living structures. Tissue fats differ from storage fats in three important particulars: the fatty acids are more unsaturated, they suffer no diminution except in

extremes of starvation, they are linked with cholesterol or phosphoric acid instead of glycerol.

The physiologic value of the lipoids depends upon their individual character. Certain of the lipoids are as essential in the structure of protoplasm as the proteins. In these tissue lipoids are found groups containing nitrogen or nitrogen and phosphorus. The neutral or true fats are glycerides composed only of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen, in the form of fatty acids linked to glycerol. The neutral fats are heat insulators; they exercise a cushioning effect by enveloping vital organs; they are the most compact form of stored energy. Carbohydrates and proteins, when stored (and storage space is limited), retain at least 3 parts of water. Fats are not only deposited without water, but have about nine times the calorific value of stored proteins or glycogen.

Fats are not utilized as readily as carbohydrates or proteins. The probable preliminary step in the metabolism of fats is the removal of hydrogen from the fatty acids to render them unsaturated and more unstable. With few exceptions, natural fatty acids are composed of long chains with an even number of carbon atoms. They are believed to undergo β -oxidation, that is, carbon atoms are split from the acid end two at a time. The acetic acid so produced is oxidized to CO_2 and H_2O . This process continues until an acid with four carbon atoms is reached. Oxidation proceeds with difficulty thereafter unless glucose is being burned coincidentally. The accumulation of these four-carbon acids depletes the blood's supply of sodium bicarbonate and acidosis results. In reduction of weight where combustion of body fat is sought, a high-protein diet permits the use of much less carbohydrate without development of ketosis. There is abundant proof that carbohydrates are converted into fats. There is much less tendency for protein residues to be used in this way.

The metabolism of fatty acids is inseparably bound with cholesterol and the phosphorized fats (lecithins) which are found in all living cells. Normally there is little transportation of neutral fat, such as in the blood. The fatty acids are carried largely in the form of lecithin, a highly advantageous arrangement, since lecithin, like neutral fat, mixes with water to form permanent emulsions of a sort which can penetrate cell walls. It is probable that initiation of fat oxidation is dependent upon the formation of lecithin. Both lecithin and cholesterol enter into the structural framework of protoplasm.

Requirement.— Since adequate experimental data are not available, it is difficult to fix a safe lower limit for fat ingestion. In the treatment of obesity, where diets of 600 to 900 Calories are employed, the fat may be restricted to 20 to 25 grams a day. A well-balanced 2500-Calorie diet allows 50 grams of fat daily, amounting to about 18 per cent of the total caloric intake. The average 3000-Calorie diet will contain about 100 grams of fat, approximately 33 per cent of the total calories. For sustained heavy labor fats

offer a better source of energy than the carbohydrates. The latter provide a cheap supply of quick energy.

Fats are essential in the diet as carriers of minute quantities of material of vitamin-like character. Special properties are bound with the unsaturated fatty acids; these are found quite generally in animal tissues. Linolenic acid is among the unsaturated groups found in fat from avian sources (chicken, duck, goose, turkey).

Deficiency.—Animals placed on a fat-free diet fail to show maximum growth and develop skin abnormalities. Excessive skin dryness in human beings can often traced to a low-fat diet. Inadequate intake of fats is accompanied by deficiency in the natural, fat-soluble vitamins. Since the carbohydrate reserves are limited, a fair storage of fats is desirable to meet satisfactorily the emergencies of life. The protective cushioning effect of storage fat and its heat-insulating qualities are not lightly to be cast aside if full vigor and health are to be achieved.

Sources.—Butter and cream are the most palatable and assimilable source of fats as well as carriers of vitamin A. Nuts, cocoa butter, vegetable oils, lard, and bacon, while rich in fat, are poor in vitamin A. Excessive dietary fat which does not carry vitamins may lead to loss of vitamin A.

The avocado (alligator pear) and the olive are outstanding exceptions among the fruits and vegetables in that their fat content is appreciable.

With few exceptions, analysis of food for fat involves ether extraction, evaporation and weighing of the residue. This weight includes all substances soluble in ether, such as cholesterol, together with actual contaminating matter. A second extraction removes the latter, but injudicious exposure of the "fat" to oxygen leads to changes in its composition with increase in weight. The factor 9.3 per gram is not applicable to all of this fat for determining its caloric value but meets a practical need.

TABLE 3.—**Functions of Carbohydrate Foods.**

<i>Fate in the Alimentary Tract</i>	<i>Metabolic Behavior</i>
Polysaccharides.	
<i>Pectin</i> (fruit jellies), probably not digested	Presumably not absorbed
<i>Pentosans</i> , undigested by enzymes, possibly hydrolyzed in part by bacterial action;	Pentose apparently not utilized by the body; excreted in the urine
<i>Galactans</i> (carrageen, agar-agar), not affected by enzymes	Not absorbed
<i>Cellulose</i> , not subject to enzyme digestion but may be altered by bacterial action; young and tender cellulose (hemicellulose of cabbage and lettuce) may be hydrolyzed to glucose	
<i>Inulin</i> , hydrolyzed to fructose	Absorbed and converted into glucose

TABLE 3.—Functions of Carbohydrate Foods. (Continued.)

arch ctrin cogen	Digested to glucose	Glucose:
charides.		Usual metabolic changes: (1) oxidation to CO ₂ and H ₂ O for immediate energy; (2) conversion into glycogen in the liver for providing a readily-available supply of carbohydrate; (3) storage as glycogen in the muscles for reserve energy
rose, split into glucose and fructose		Special metabolic paths: (1) Conversion to galactose for formation of cerebrosides; (2) conversion to galactose for synthesis of lactose; (3) oxidation to glycuronic acid for detoxication purposes
ltose, hydrolyzed to glucose		Excreted as reducing material in the urine
ose, split into glucose and galactose		
amelized sugars, undergo no changes (?)		
saccharides.		
ntoses } ctose } cose }	require no digestion	Pentoses excreted by the kidneys Excess glucose is excreted in the urine

TABLE 4.—Functions of Dietary Fat.

Fate in the Alimentary Tract	Metabolic Behavior
rides.	
utral fats, hydrolyzed to glycerol and fatty acids	Resynthesized on absorption; glycerol is metabolized as though it were a carbohydrate Neutral fat is stored as reserve energy, is used as insulation against heat loss, and exercises a cushioning effect by enveloping vital organs
ty acids, digestion not required; function as laxative agents in the colon	Fatty acids undergo β -oxidation to CO ₂ and H ₂ O provided there is simultaneous combustion of glucose
axes, not affected by lipolytic enzymes	Of no apparent value of the body
Fate in the Alimentary Tract	Metabolic Behavior
r Lipids.	
lesterol } ospholipids } nt sterols, probably not absorbed from the intestinal tract	Alimentary changes uncertain Destruction and synthesis within the body not well understood. This type of "fat" is not primarily a source of energy. Cholesterol and lecithin (phospholipid) enter into the structural framework of protoplasm constituting "tissue" fat as opposed to "storage" fat (glycerides)

TABLE 5.—Functions of Protein Foods.

<i>Fate in the Alimentary Tract</i>	<i>Metabolic Behavior</i>
Conjugated Proteins.	
<i>Nucleoprotein</i> , separated into protein and nucleotides which are hydrolyzed either in the gastro-intestinal tract or within the body to H_3PO_4 , glucose, purin and pyrimidine bases	Uric acid is the end-product of purin metabolism. The body can synthesize all the nucleoprotein it requires even on a purin-free diet
<i>Lecithoprotein</i> , separated into protein and a lipid moiety	Lipids follow the course of fat metabolism
<i>Glycoprotein</i> , separated into protein and a carbohydrate fraction	Carbohydrates are utilized as glucose
<i>Phosphoprotein</i> , separated into protein and a phosphorus-containing prosthetic group	Phosphorus compounds play vital rôles in the metabolism of proteins, carbohydrates and fats. Phosphate is the chief anion of osseous tissue and is vital in acid-base regulation
<i>Chromprotein</i> , separated into protein and a color-bearing group	Pyrrol groups, if present, are conserved for body synthesis of hemoglobin
(N.B.—The fate of the various non-protein groups has not been definitely established)	

Simple Proteins

<i>Albumin</i> <i>Globulin</i> <i>Other proteins</i>	{ Hydrolyzed to constituent amino-acids (<i>e. g.</i> , glycine, alanine, tyrosine, tryptophan, histidine, arginine, cystine, leucine, and glutamic acid)	Amino-acids: (1) repair, maintain, or build new protoplasm; (2) are synthesized into endocrine agents (<i>e. g.</i> , thyroxin, adrenalin); (3) undergo deamination when present in excess of immediate requirement (there is no physiologic provision for protein storage). The amino group is converted into urea and excreted by the kidneys. The hydroxy-acid remnant is treated as carbohydrate
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Cholesterol.—Cholesterol is a lipid of paramount importance. It is a vital constituent of nerve tissue, and is anti-hemolytic. It checks lipolytic action in the tissue cells, and is responsible in part for the semi-solid consistency of living cells despite their large water content (75 to 85 per cent). Increase in cholesterol concentration enables cells to hold greater quantities of water, pathologically visible as edema. Cholesterol (possibly better designated as animal sterol) is a high-molecular weight, monatomic, unsaturated alcohol of low specific gravity. Its complex structure relates it to the terpenes. It is a comparatively inert solid insoluble in water, but soluble in alcohol, ether, and chloroform.

Requirement.—Little is known regarding the origin, functions, and fate of cholesterol. Undoubtedly it can be synthesized in the body. Continuous feeding of diets high or low in fat raises or low-

the blood-cholesterol level, which is normally 0.18 per cent. The necessity for the inclusion of cholesterol in the diet is not understood, except that the sterols are related to vitamins D and E. Cholesterol or its derivatives located in the skin are transformed into active vitamin D by solar irradiation. The infant receives very little cholesterol from milk, but the diet is usually fortified with cod-liver oil which contains related sterols.

Deficiency.—No data are available on the sequelæ attendant upon an inadequate supply of cholesterol *per se*. The desirability of including eggs in the diet, particularly of children and convalescents, may be due not entirely to their concentrated food value, but also to their high cholesterol content. Diets which are deficient in cholesterol-containing foods are usually inadequate.

Sources. The exogenous source of cholesterol is animal fat, plant sterols not being absorbed from the alimentary tract to any appreciable extent.

Inorganic Salts or Minerals.—When plant or animal tissue is so treated as to remove all organic matter, the minerals are left behind as ash. This residue gives no clue to the form in which the elements contained therein occurred in the tissue. The functions of the "mineral elements" are legion. Calcium and magnesium as phosphate and carbonate are the chief inorganic constituents of bone and teeth with fluoride and silicon playing minor rôles. One of the essential elements of organic compounds composing the soft tissues is potassium. Soluble and ionized salts act as physiologic catalyzers; they govern the condition of the body colloids and the movement of fluid; they affect the elasticity of muscle and the irritability of nerve; they produce and control the reaction of secretions. Increase in sodium or decrease in calcium in the surrounding fluid augments the irritability of the tissue. Sodium, potassium, and calcium concentrations are kept at fixed proportions for the maintenance of physico-chemical phenomena, such as the rhythmic beating of the heart. Ionic imbalance leads to altered permeability of membranes permitting escape of protein, or to retention of salt with consequent water-logging of the tissues. Not only the absolute concentrations of the inorganic elements, but also their ratios are of paramount importance to the proper function of the body.

Trace Elements.—As pointed out by Underwood (1940) thirteen mineral elements are known to be essential to animal life, *viz.*, Ca, P, Mg, Na, K, Cl, S, Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn, I, and Co. The last five of these are usually referred to as "trace elements." Because of its relatively large daily requirement, iron is no longer placed in this category.

Chlorides.—The chlorides constitute a relatively large proportion of body minerals. The adult is estimated by Sherman to contain about 100 grams of NaCl (weight in grams \times 0.0015). Despite the extensive shifting of chlorides within the body, the blood concentration remains fairly constant at 0.45 to 0.5 per cent (measured as NaCl). Chlorides play an essential part in maintenance of

osmotic equilibrium, water balance, and acid-base adjustment. Digestion requires the diversion of appreciable amounts of chlorides as HCl from the blood and tissues to the stomach. Loss of this halogen from the gastro-intestinal tract (either through vomiting or diarrhea) leads to serious depletion since there is little or no storage of chlorides.

A moderate variation in chloride intake produces no immediate, significant effect upon metabolism. Diminished cell chlorides associated with a drop in water content result from a decreased dietary supply of salt. Excessive quantities of salt in the ingesta interfere with absorption and utilization of food, protein catabolism in particular being stimulated. Chloride retention is accompanied by an increased water content of the tissues as may be observed in generalized edema. Approximately 1 liter of water is held in the tissues for every 6 to 7 grams of NaCl retained. Ingestion of unusually large amounts of salt has been reported to have caused death.

Requirement.—Two grams of NaCl presumably represent the minimum daily requirement, although vegetarians require perhaps twice that amount. On a mixed diet the salt intake varies with the protein ingested. The average daily consumption of NaCl is 10 grams. Many persons, however, obtain 15 to 20 grams of salt per day. On a "salt-free" diet, the body may conserve Cl by excreting less than 200 mg. of NaCl in twenty-four hours through the kidneys.

With profuse sweating the loss of chlorides must be made good by increased dietary intake. Booher has calculated that a man laboring under conditions conducive to profuse sweating may lose 8 to 9 liters of water through this channel in a working day. If the sweat is of high salinity, the loss may amount to as much as 30 grams of sodium chloride. During acclimation to high temperatures, the salt concentration diminishes after the first few days to about one-half of the initial value. It is particularly important, therefore, that new workers be provided with adequate amounts of salt drinking water. A 0.1 per cent solution of sodium chloride in water at approximately 46° F. has been successfully used as a prophylactic for "heat cramps."

Deficiency.—Normal growth will not occur with radical reduction in the dietary chlorides. Salt-low diets may lead to asthenia and disturbances in water metabolism.

Sources.—It is customary to report chloride analyses in terms of NaCl. Since the chlorine may be combined with sodium, potassium, calcium, magnesium, and other elements occurring in traces, this may lead to absurdities. For example, molasses is very high in potassium (1.349 per cent) and low in sodium (0.019 per cent); yet its chlorine content (0.317 per cent) includes it among foods high in NaCl. The data, therefore, presented in the last column of Table 71, Mineral Constituents of Various Foods (page 775), must be taken with the proverbial grain of salt.

Under "Foods Highest in Chlorides" are found several noteworthy items, such as "salt-free" butter and "salt-free" white bread. Although the greater part of dietary chlorides is furnished as added NaCl, the halogen does occur in natural foods. Despite the presence of appreciable amounts of chlorides in the vegetable foods listed, the addition of salt is required for palatability, as explained later.

Sodium and Potassium.—Sodium is the predominating cation in body fluids (Na:K, 15:1, except in milk), potassium in muscle fibers and red blood cells. Potassium cannot be substituted for sodium in the diet. An abnormal excess of potassium robs the body of its sodium by causing its excretion as NaCl. Little disturbance in the Na:K ratio is tolerated. Growth ceases if potassium salts are withheld. Normal diets provide ample potassium. In plants there is an excess of potassium over sodium, rendering many of them unpalatable unless sodium chloride is added. The potato is a particularly good example of this.

To quote from McCance, Widdowson, and Shackleton: Potassium is the predominant metallic radicle in vegetable cells, and it forms a large part of the total minerals in plants. It is readily dissolved out in hot water so that vegetables which have been cooked for some time may have lost more than half their original potassium. Apart from dried pulses, vegetables with notably large amounts of this element are potatoes, mushrooms, horseradish and spinach. More potassium is found in carrageen moss than in any other vegetable which has been analyzed. There is a striking difference between the amount of potassium found in old and new carrots.

Vegetables contain only a very small amount of sodium unless it is added in the form of chloride or bicarbonate. Fresh fruits contain about 2 mg. Na per 100 grams whereas the potassium content usually exceeds 100 mg. In dried fruits values from 700 to 1900 mg. per cent are encountered. The amount of sodium in nuts rarely reaches 10 mg. per cent while the potassium concentration varies from 300 to 950 mg.

Experiments on 150 American dietaries (Sherman) revealed ingestion of 1.43 to 6.54 (average, 3.39) grams of potassium daily. The sodium intake is a variable factor due to individual preferences for much or little added salt, but averages 4.6 grams.

Calcium and Phosphorus. The predominating cation in osseous tissue is calcium which constitutes about 1.5 per cent of the body weight. Calcium metabolism cannot be considered apart from that of phosphorus. Calcium phosphate and carbonate comprise 95 per cent of bone ash. Ninety-nine per cent of the total body calcium is in the bones and teeth. The remainder exists as soluble salts in the fluids and soft tissues. Calcium is necessary for the clotting of blood. (The serum averages 10 mg. Ca per 100 cc.). The excitability of the neuromuscular system is dependent upon the relative amounts of various cations in the body fluids and, in particular,

upon the concentration of ionic calcium. Calcium and vitamin C are required to maintain the cohesive properties of cells. Calcium exerts a favorable effect upon iron utilization; an abundance of calcium enables the body to subsist on subminimal amounts of iron.

All phosphorus occurs in the body as orthophosphate. It is ingested as inorganic salts, phosphoproteins (*e. g.*, casein in milk and ovovitellin in egg-yolk), nucleoproteins, phospholipins, and phytins (plant compounds containing six phosphoric acid molecules linked to an organic group). All are digested, absorbed, and utilized, although the fate of the phytins is obscure (p. 168). Controversy exists as to the relative merits of organic and inorganic phosphorus in the diet. Not only does phosphorus enter into the composition of bone and teeth, but it also has an important rôle in the metabolism of proteins, carbohydrates and lipids as well as functioning in the maintenance of the faintly alkaline reaction characteristic of body fluids. The inorganic phosphates of the blood serum vary with age. The maximum, measured as P, is 6 mg. per cent for the breast-fed infant; 5.5 mg. for the artificially-fed; 5 mg. for children; and 4 mg. for adults. Since the inorganic P is increased with greater exposure to the sun's rays, it is highest in May, June and July, and lowest during the winter months.

The reaction of the intestinal tract affects the absorption of calcium and phosphorus, acidity favoring passage into the body. When large amounts of fat are ingested, insoluble calcium soaps are formed, preventing absorption. Possibly fat, by holding calcium back, allows for easier passage of phosphorus into the body. Vitamin D increases the absorption of calcium and also phosphorus. Like calcium, a large excess of iron, manganese or aluminum will interfere with absorption of phosphorus. The parathyroid hormone is thought to enhance phosphorus absorption.

About 90 per cent of the calcium is excreted in the feces chiefly as insoluble phosphate. A larger portion of the phosphorus eliminated is lost through the kidneys than is the case with calcium.

Requirement.—The level of calcium intake most conducive to optimal well-being is significantly higher than that required for normal growth and maintenance (Sherman and Campbell, 1935). The bare calcium and phosphorus requirements fall short of stating the full nutritional need. The absolute amount of either is conditioned by the relative amounts of each, the food sources, and the presence or absence of other factors, as gastric acid and vitamin D.

TABLE 6. Calcium and Phosphorus Requirements (gram diem).

	Calcium.		Phosphorus.	
	Minimum.	Optimum.	Minimum.	Optimum.
Children	1.0	2.0	1.2	1.5-2.0
Adults, normal	0.5	1.0	0.9	1.3-1.5
Adults, pregnant or lactating .	1.5	2.5	1.5	2.0-3.0

Suggested maintenance levels expressed in terms other than those shown in Table 6 are:

	Calcium.	Phosphorus.
Children, preschool* .	7-9 mg./cm. height	9-11 mg./cm. height
	45-50 mg./kg. weight	60-70 mg./kg. weight
10 years .	35 mg./kg.	44 mg./kg.
16 years .	20 mg./kg.	22 mg./kg.
Adult	10-15 mg./kg.	15-20 mg./kg.

* Data from Daniels *et al.*, 1935.

It has been suggested by Drummond (1939) that Nature intended proper growth of bones and teeth without dependence upon the extraordinary reserves in the livers of strange fish. Actually, very little vitamin D is necessary if dietary calcium and phosphorus are optimum. Rickets usually is associated with common diets containing about 50 I.U. of vitamin D, but this does not occur if the calcium amounts to 1.5 to 2 grams and the phosphorus somewhat more. Drummond found 3.5 units per cent vitamin D in human milk. The suckling, therefore, receives approximately 15 units in early life and 35 units at weaning, yet breast-fed infants are not often rachitic. On the other hand, cow's milk which is much richer in both calcium and phosphorus must be supplemented by 100 to 500 I.U. of vitamin D to prevent rickets.

Deficiency.—It should be stressed that the absolute quantities of dietary calcium and phosphorus are of less consequence than the relative amounts unless both are very low. Satisfactory diets keep within the proportional limits of 1:2 and 2:1, Ca to P. The best diet is 1:1 or with a slight excess of phosphorus. Decalcification results if the ratio reaches 1:3 and becomes particularly active at 1:4. The tendency for cereal diets to produce rickets is due to the high P and low Ca content. The view held by Mellanby that the cereal grains contain a specific anticalcifying factor has been challenged by Jones (1939) with experimental evidence. Lack of calcium and phosphorus results in improper composition of dental structures and defective bone formation. Drastic reduction in the dietary calcium and vitamin C leads to loss of the cohesive properties of cells.

Sources.—It is recognized that milk in large quantities is the method of choice for increasing calcium storage in the bones. A quart of milk furnishes about 1.2 grams of Ca and 0.9 g of P. The leafy types of vegetables are richer in calcium and phosphorus than are the grains and fruits. Chatfield (1939) has observed that the calcium varies with the greenness of cabbage leaves; the iron and vitamin-A content likewise are highest in the dark green, non-headed varieties. The phosphorus-rich portion of cereal grains is fed to farm animals and the phosphorus-poor residue goes for human consumption. The dandelion contains more phosphorus than any other common leafy vegetable. The yolk of egg is much richer in phosphorus and calcium than the white.

Magnesium.—According to Sherman, 0.05 per cent of the body weight gives the approximate magnesium content of the adult.

About 71 per cent of the total is held in the bones (Lusk). Muscle tissue is considerably richer in magnesium than in calcium. Blood magnesium averages 3 mg. per cent, serum 2.5 mg., values much lower than those for calcium. Although serum calcium is four times that of magnesium, whole blood is only twice as great, due to the absence of calcium from erythrocytes. The administration of magnesium leads to increased excretion of calcium.

Low plasma magnesium may be associated with hyperirritability of the nervous system, muscular twitchings, and convulsions (Daniels and Everson, 1936). A soft diet (milk and refined cereals) may lead to diminished blood values.

Apparently the average diet contains ample magnesium for the body's needs. According to Sherman, the adult ingests 0.14 to 0.67 (average 0.34) gram of Mg daily. No experimental data are available on the optimal intake of magnesium. Daniels (1936) found the magnesium ingestion of preschool children to vary from 11 to 19 mg. per kg. with an average retention of 1.4 mg.

Iron.—Iron is an essential constituent of hemoglobin, the oxygen-carrying pigment of the blood. Not more than 3 to 4 grams of iron exist in the whole body, of which 2.5 grams is in circulation. The iron content of hemoglobin amounts to only 0.0335 per cent, of liver 0.02 per cent, of heart 0.01 per cent while a small amount of iron is associated with nucleoprotein. Ten per cent of the total hemoglobin in adults supposedly is destroyed daily. According to the *U. S. Yearbook of Agriculture*, 1939, the iron requirements are:

	Mg. per lb
Infants	0.36
Preschool children	0.27
	Mg. per diem.
Boys, 5 to 11	9-11
Over 11	13
Girls, 5 to 11	9-11
Over 11	13-15
Men	12-15
Women, Before menopause	17
During pregnancy	20
During lactation	17-20
After menopause	12-15

Iron deficiency in the diet causes anemia.

Dried fruits are particularly rich in iron, sometimes two to three times what would be expected from the fresh fruit. Seeded raisins have shown an increase over the whole raisins from which they were derived. This has been interpreted as contamination during processing. Canned foods, likewise, may have a higher iron content than anticipated. Such iron has proved to be excellent for the regeneration of hemoglobin in animal experiments according to some investigators and not so good according to others. The high-iron content of Norwegian goat cheese is ascribed to long cooking in iron pans. The iron apparently is bound as a complex salt to lactic and citric acids in sour milk. Milk transported in cans contains more iron than milk taken directly from the cow (Tøverud).

Copper.—Copper in infinitesimal amounts promotes the utilization of iron for hemoglobin manufacture and it is possible that its deficiency tends toward anemia. Low levels of copper in the blood plasma are not conducive to rapid regeneration of hemoglobin. Much of the body's copper exists in protein combination, as hemocuprein and hepatocuprein. Its chief function may involve its rôle in physiologic oxidation-reduction systems. Refer also to p. 773.

Although the normal intake of copper is 2 to 2.5 mg. (as Cu) *per diem*, the minimum is probably one-third thereof. Foods prepared in copper utensils or treated with copper sulphate to retain the green vegetable color on canning are apt to provide toxic doses of copper. Milk is sometimes fortified with copper. The liver is the physiologic storehouse for this metal, possibly merely holding it for excretion *via* the bile.

Manganese.—The biochemical significance of this metal has not been elucidated, but it is believed that traces of manganese are essential for the elaboration of hemoglobin. In rats it is necessary for normal reproduction. Manganese is required for normal bone development in chicks. Large amounts of calcium and phosphorus in the diet appear to hinder manganese utilization. Minute amounts of this element have been thought to activate phosphatase. A high-manganese intake exerts a deleterious effect possibly due to interference with the function of some member of the vitamin-B group.

The human requirement for manganese has not been ascertained but Everson and Daniels (1934) suggest that the daily diet of children should contain 0.2 to 0.3 mg. per kilogram of body weight. The chief body depots are the liver, muscles, bones and skin. Little of the manganese ingested is lost in the urine. About 85 per cent of the manganese eliminated is found in the feces.

Iodine.—The three inorganic constituents commonly deficient in the diet are calcium, iron, and iodine. Iodine constitutes 65 per cent of thyroxin, the active principle of the thyroid gland. The human thyroid gland has a total of 4 to 20 mg. of combined iodine, its amount depending upon age and environment.

Combined iodine is widely distributed in rocks and minerals of all kinds. The earth's crust, not the sea, is the storehouse of this element. Iodine is found in the air (0.09 to 2.54 mg. per 1000 c.m.), being present largely in microorganisms and other dust particles. Its content depends upon the temperature, humidity, rainfall, the time of day and year, the winds, the direction and width of valleys, the elevation, and the proximity of the sea. According to von Fellenberg, iodine is plentiful in the air of places where much coal is being burned (as in railroad sidings), since the iodine is liberated by the combustion. Wood, on burning, retains a large part of the iodine in the ashes.

Iodine evaporates from sea water at a considerable rate. This appears in rain water within 3 miles of the ocean in appreciable concentration. Analyses of sea water vary from 17 to 50 micrograms of iodine per liter, whereas fresh water ranges from 0.5 to

2 micrograms per liter. Water from Great Salt Lake shows 70 parts per billion. The purification process robs sea salt of its iodine so that only the crude product can be regarded as containing this element. Seaweed has great capacity for concentrating the iodine of salt water. Where iodine is available, watercress also possesses marked concentrating power.

Water rich in iron was found by Chatin to be rich also in iodine. Hard waters containing calcium and magnesium soon lose their iodine. Rivers are a richer source of this element than are springs. Glacial rivers are low in iodine content.

The iodine in vegetables and grains can be increased enormously by the use of iodine-containing fertilizer, as Chile nitrate. It is not known whether the occurrence of iodine in vegetables is wholly accidental or is essential to normal plant metabolism.

Iodine can be absorbed readily by the lungs, skin, and gastrointestinal mucosa. Human blood averages 0.006 mg. of iodine per 100 cc. It is excreted in amounts that appear to be independent of the intake. Von Fellenberg established equilibrium between ingestion and elimination after long periods of feeding 14 micrograms a day. When the diet contains 50 to 80 micrograms, an easily-moved iodine reserve is built up. Reduction of iodine in the thyroid gland vigorously resists depletion. Storage and elimination of iodine are dependent upon the form in which the element is ingested. As far as experimental evidence goes, iodine-containing fats, such as cod-liver oil, are best utilized. Then follow in order iodides, plant iodine (as watercress) and animal iodine (as fish with oil removed).

Iodine may be eliminated by the skin and nasal secretions, the amount lost this way being influenced by external conditions and body activity.

Requirement.—According to Orr and Leitch, the daily need of the adult male is 45 micrograms of iodine. The physiologic minimum is placed at 14 micrograms by von Fellenberg. In goiter-free regions the normal intake of iodine ranges from 0.04 to 0.08 mg. per day (Eggenberger). Drinking water is the most constant source of iodine for the vast majority of the people. In general, potable waters show a higher iodine content in winter than in summer. Where endemic goiter is rife, the water should be systematically fortified* with sodium iodide. Where this is not practical, as in rural communities, iodized salt should be prescribed. Inasmuch as the thyroid gland tenaciously retains iodine, artificial addition of it to the diet is not required except at intervals. Potassium iodide is added to common table salt in the proportion of 5000 parts per billion to provide "iodized salt."

The average iodine content of oysters from the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts of the United States is 492 parts per billion on the original moisture basis. One average serving of such oysters (110

*For example, the iodine content of the impounded drinking water of Rochester, New York, which naturally contains only 2 p.p.b., is raised twice a year to 10 to 15 p.p.b. by addition of sodium iodide.

grams) will provide 54 micrograms of iodine or 120 per cent of the daily requirement of 45 micrograms (Coulson).

Three ounces of salmon a day have been advised as a prophylactic measure. This does not provide the total requirement, but is an excellent adjunct to an iodine-poor diet.

Deficiency.—Hypertrophy and hyperplasia of the thyroid gland (parenchymatous goiter) is resultant upon iodine deficiency. With adequate intake the goiter may occasionally resolve or more often during the regression a colloid stage obtains. Goiter and cretinism are unknown where sea-food assumes a prominent place in the dietary.

"The amount of iodine necessary to prevent goiter is very small, according to some statements, only about 1 part in 3,000,000 parts of the body weight. It is important, however, that this amount be maintained, and various investigators have shown that, in localities where food and drinking water do not contain sufficient iodine to supply the proper amount to the body, goiter and other diseases of the thyroid gland usually are prevalent." (Tressler and Wells.)

Although no form of goiter has ever been proved to be due to a diet high in iodine, administration of iodine-containing drugs may cause colloid goiter or an adenoma to become toxic. The quantity of iodine required to produce a skin eruption is generally conceded to be much greater than that needed for goiter prophylaxis.

According to Wiesel and Kretz, non-ionized, organically-combined iodine, such as occurs in plants and animal foods, never leads to iodine intoxication in spite of the fact that this iodine is ingested in quantitatively larger amounts than in iodized salt. There is no recorded case where a person moving from an iodine-deficient goitrous district to an iodine-rich non-goitrous region showed symptoms of iodine intoxication.

Sources.—Articles in the diet which have little or no "fuel value" may have considerable "mineral value." For example, mushrooms and Irish moss are outstanding in their iodine content. Of the everyday foods, leafy vegetables are prone to be the richest source of plant iodine and eggs of animal iodine. Iodine is more plentiful in those parts of plants where green coloring matter is most intense. Young green leaves contain more than etiolated leaves, stems more than roots, and leaves than stems (Heller, *et al.*, 1935).

Preserved fish and fishery products contain iodine in quantities comparable to those of fresh fruit. Fish roes are especially rich in iodine. Liquors from canned shell-fish have a high-iodine content. There are a few sea-foods which rank higher in iodine content than the oyster, but these are usually not so widely distributed, nor so readily obtainable. The iodine of shrimp and crab is concentrated largely in the non-edible portion (Coulson).

The iodine content of plants is at a maximum in autumn and winter. Plants grown on the same soil take up varying amounts of iodine. Onions and asparagus appear to pick up more than cabbages. The latter in turn exceed the legumes which absorb

more iodine from the earth than the cereals. The fruits take up still less iodine. Iodine uptake tends to vary directly with the water available for the growing crop.

Iodine analyses are reported on both the wet and dry basis. Because of the wide variation in the water content of food samples, and because of the minute concentration of the iodine, data on the desiccated material are more satisfactory to the analyst. Figures on the fresh food, however, are more readily evaluated by the layman. The iodine concentration is expressed in a variety of ways: as parts per million or billion (thousand million), as gamma (γ) per cent, as micrograms per kilogram, as milligrams per kilogram. A microgram (γ) is 0.001 mg. or one-millionth of a gram.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mg. I per kg.} &= \text{p.p.m.} \\ 1000 (\text{mg. I per kg.}) &= \text{p.p.b.} \\ \gamma \text{ per gram} &= \text{p.p.m.} \\ \gamma \text{ per cent} &= \text{p.p. 100 m.} \\ \gamma \text{ per kilo} &= \text{p.p.b.} \end{aligned}$$

For example, 0.450 mg. I per kg. = 0.450 p.p.m. = 450 p.p.b. = 450 γ per kg.

Methods for determination of iodine where it occurs in minute amounts are far from satisfactory. No figure has been included in Table 72 which was not considered acceptable. The analytical difficulties, however, must not be overlooked. Since iodine in many instances is a highly variable and accidental constituent of food, the tabulated data should be carefully evaluated.

Bromine.—So far as is known, the occurrence of bromide in the body is merely fortuitous and dependent upon food intake (Underwood, 1940). A fruitful source of this element is common salt, one sample of which Dixon (1935) found to contain 1 mg. Br per gram Cl.

According to Neufeld, who should be consulted for a complete review of the biochemistry of bromine (*Canad. Jour. Res., Sec. B.* 14, 160, 1936) this element is an invariable constituent of marine algæ; there is no definite relation, however, between the iodine and bromine concentrations. Considerably less bromine is found in land plants, but it is present in measurable amount in the majority of flowering plants. Environment and selective cell affinity appear to be the controlling factors in determining the bromine content of foods. Proximity to the ocean is associated with relatively high values compared to foodstuffs grown inland. The green parts of plants are invariably richer than the roots of the same plant. The fruit or seed contains the least amount of bromine. Melons and tomatoes, however, were found by Damiens and Blaignon (1932) to be outstanding exceptions. Mushrooms (especially the boletus) are also noteworthy in this regard.

The thyroid gland is the richest mammalian organ in bromine although it does not appear to be of functional significance so far as thyroglobulin is concerned.

The mean normal blood bromide level is 0.37 mg. per cent; the average urinary output is 0.65 mg. per cent (Conway-Flood method,

(1936). Dixon found the normal blood to vary from 0.39 to 1.36 mg. per cent (av. 0.73 mg.). High values in blood presumably are due to high intake and slow excretion.

Sulfur.—The total sulfur in the body amounts to approximately 0.25 per cent of the total weight. According to Sherman, the daily intake varies from 0.51 to 2.82 (average 1.28) grams. Since sulfur is ingested chiefly in the form of protein and is closely allied with nitrogen metabolism, it is hardly to be classed with the mineral elements. Natural mixed proteins contain on an average 1 per cent sulfur in the form of cystine, cysteine, methionine, and other amino-acid derivatives. The adequacy of a protein is determined in part by its sulfur content.

There is apparently little evidence that the body elaborates sulfur-containing amino-acids for tissue building and repair from inorganic sulfur. Elementary sulfur may be converted into H_2S in the lower intestinal tract, which is a powerful reducing center. Hydrogen sulfide on absorption is rapidly oxidized in the blood stream to sulfates and excreted by the kidneys.

Organic sulfur compounds, notably glutathione and insulin, are of paramount importance in physiologic oxidative processes. The manifold functions of sulfur have, as yet, not been elucidated.

Foods rich in sulfur are usually those of acidic ash. Oxidation to sulfuric acid depletes body base since the acid must be neutralized as it is formed. Sulfuric acid may be produced from amino-acids for conjugation with products of intestinal putrefaction. Sulfur-rich foods may themselves be a source of intestinal toxins.

Until the need was met by Masters and McCance (1939) there existed a paucity of reliable, systematic data on the amount of sulfur in foodstuffs. Although their analyses (refer to Table 73, p. 795) cover English foods, they are generally applicable to the American dietary. In fruits and vegetables the sulfur content is low and exceedingly variable from sample to sample. Considerable sulfur may be lost in the form of essential oils and other volatile compounds. The use of sulfate manures increases the sulfur content of the products grown thereon. High values are seen when dried fruits are treated with sulfur dioxide for preservation. The enormous sulfur content of carrageen moss is probably due to large quantities of inorganic sulfates. Masters and McCance tested the reliability and applicability of their figures by preparing four cooked dishes using standard recipes, then analyzing the prepared food and comparing the observed sulfur content with that calculated; excellent agreement was obtained.

Zinc.—Investigations concerning the rôle of zinc in nutrition offer much promise. From the work of Scott and Fisher (1938) it would appear that zinc is concerned with storage of insulin in the pancreas. Eggleton (1939) has considered the possibility of zinc deficiency as a factor in the beri-beri syndrome.

The zinc content of milk has been placed at 2.5 to 3.5 mg. per liter—a comparatively high concentration. According to Eggleton, the amount of zinc found in foods is positively correlated with their

thiamin content. The human requirement is unknown, but Scoular (1939) has suggested 0.3 mg. Zn per kilogram for pre-school boys.

Cobalt and Nickel.—Studies on the function of cobalt in nutrition have been confined largely to diseases affecting cattle and sheep. According to Underwood (1940) "impaired growth and appetite, wasting of the musculature, marasmus and varying degrees of anaemia are invariable symptoms of Co deficiency." Cobalt in large doses provokes polycythemia vera.

Cobalt is a contaminant of iron salts. In general the concentration of cobalt in animal tissues exceeds that of nickel; the reverse holds for plants. There is more cobalt and nickel in the pancreas than in any other organ studied. To some extent nickel may be able to replace cobalt in nutrition.

Water.—Inasmuch as water forms the bulk of the body and its loss is continuous, the physiologic need is obvious. A person may be deprived of food for a long period of time, but water can be withheld only for a few days. Muscle tissue holds 40 to 45 per cent of the total body water, the skin over 20 per cent. These two tissues suffer most from dehydration when the supply of water is inadequate. In mammalian muscle, 19 to 27 per cent of the total muscle water is "bound" to the colloids and does not function as free water. The "gel" consistency of protoplasm is due to this property of imbibition. Glycogen and protein stores hold 3 or more parts of water; fat is laid up almost dry, at most 0.2 gram of water being retained for each gram of fat. Conversion of glucose to glycogen for storage purposes involves change to a colloidal form which has little effect upon the osmotic pressure of the system. The marked decrease in solubility in passing from glucose to glycogen prevents the circulating water from washing this carbohydrate from the tissues.

Water is continually shifting about the body so as to provide a vehicle for digestive juices and other secretions, to transport nutriment, and to carry off waste-products. Equilibrium within narrow limits is maintained between circulating fluids, extracellular and intracellular, free and bound water. Adjustment can be made very rapidly. Forced administration of great quantities of water leads to an intoxication which is characterized by convulsions and renal fatigue.

Water retention is curtailed by a high-protein, low-salt diet in which there is an adequate supply of the vitamin B complex. A low Na:K ratio is requisite.

Water is produced within the body by chemical changes. Each molecule of glucose, $C_6H_{12}O_6$, converted to glycogen, $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n$, provides 1 molecule of water which amounts to about 60 grams of water for every 100 grams of carbohydrate. Oxidation of glucose releases 6 molecules of water for every molecule burned. Combustion of fats and proteins likewise produces water, the former yielding over 100 grams of water, the latter 40 to 45 grams per 100 grams of food oxidized.

Ingestion.—Seventy-five to 80 per cent of the total food eaten is water, part of this being in “free” form. The amount of water demanded per day depends upon the dietary habits of the individual and upon climatic conditions. In the California desert, 11 to 12 liters a day are needed for heat regulation; even then it is possible to suffer from thirst. Whenever the surrounding temperature equals or exceeds 98.6°F. , heat is lost, not by conduction and radiation, but only by evaporation of water. The normal requirement of water approaches 2 liters per day, or about 700 cc. more than that eliminated by the kidneys. In forcing fluids, a glass an hour is recommended. Three liters a day is the usual limit for a 150-pound adult, comparable amounts for an infant being 90 to 100 cc., for a child, aged five to eight years, 600 to 800 cc., and for one, aged eight to twelve years, 1000 to 1500 cc.

Elimination.—The kidneys excrete 1000 to 1500 cc. per twenty-four hours. The volume decreases as perspiration increases. Insensible loss of water does not exceed 21 grams per square meter of body surface per hour. According to Marriott, the average adult exercising lightly in an atmosphere of 65° to 75°F. , with 35 to 60 per cent humidity, eliminates 30 to 60 grams of water per hour by evaporation, which amounts to 10 to 20 grams per kilogram of body weight per day, a total of 650 to 1400 cc. of water. This includes the water lost through the expired air—approximately 600 cc. per day. The loss of water through normal fecal excretion is 60 to 150 cc. daily.

Vitamins.—Full vigor and health demand for their maintenance substances other than carbohydrates, proteins, fats, minerals and water. Several of these food accessories have been competently investigated, but the present-day knowledge is far from complete.

Since chemical tests for vitamins are of limited value these substances must be assayed by biologic experimentation, the approach being made from either a curative or a prophylactic viewpoint. Data obtained on experimental animals under highly artificial circumstances cannot be applied in detail to humans who rarely exist under control conditions. Vitamin deficiency in man is always a complex matter, making the clinical aspects difficult to evaluate. Vitamin deprivation ultimately produces widespread constitutional mal-effects. The availability of any one vitamin is not entirely a matter of its ingestion. The chemical environment in which the vitamin is elaborated and its vitamin and food associates in the alimentary canal determine in some measure the degree of its utilization.

Vitamin literature is crowded with abortive investigations and unwarranted claims. Early evidence, accumulated during enthusiastic research and prematurely published, too often has not been corroborated at a later date. Coincidence has been too often mistaken for established cause and effect. Much that is printed on the subject of vitamins is confusing and often deliberately misinforming. The problem demands that we commit ourselves warily to fixed opinions, but that we be not over slow in adopting newer ideas

nor too ready to discard the older ones. Specific suggestions are offered for avoiding the dangers of vitamin shortage inherent in certain therapeutic and other diets. Although it is recognized that vitamin deficiency involves several factors simultaneously, it is necessary, with our limited knowledge, to treat each vitamin more or less as a separate entity. Such approach to the problem of food accessories does not reveal the manifold interrelationships undoubtedly at work in the maintenance of human nutritive efficiency.

SECTION V.

ACID-BASE FACTORS IN NUTRITION.*

MARJORIE R. MATTICE, M.S.

Born the medical profession and the laity have been besieged with a tremendous amount of inaccurate and irreconcilable information relative to the acidity of foods. Whenever reaction of foods is mentioned, there is confusion over metabolic end-products *versus* gastric and intestinal effects. The "reaction" of a food is frequently judged by the pH or titratable acidity of the urine subsequent to the ingestion of the food. This viewpoint is not entirely tenable even with reference to the metabolic behavior of foods and it certainly has no bearing upon the "reaction" of foods within the alimentary tract. Foods as eaten create a mental impression of neutrality or acidity. An extraordinarily acid-tasting food, however, may be altered in the body to a definitely alkaline substance. Neutral foods, on the other hand, may give rise to acids during the course of metabolism. The designation, therefore, of the reaction of a food requires qualification as to point of view.

REACTION OF FOODS *PER SE*.

Tabulated data with reference to the true acidity or pH of foods will be found in the Appendix (p. 736). Recipe foods and soda-untain items have been separated from the main table. By recipe foods it is to be understood that standard recipes have been used for preparation. Canned items (commercial) are included in Table 62 since they are not subject to the wide variation anticipated under changing kitchen conditions. Some items will not be found since they were troublesome to test. Butter, oil-and-vinegar, and other fatty mixtures do not readily lend themselves to pH measurement with the glass electrode which was employed for all the data assembled in these tables.

As might be expected, those foods acid to the taste are far down the pH scale. Those disagreeably acid to all palates approximate pH 2. Above pH 5, in general, and above pH 4 not infrequently, foods can be described as neutral to the tongue. *Insofar as they do not induce further secretion of gastric acid*, foods showing pH values greater than 5 are essentially "alkaline" in the stomach. It is not possible by introducing into the stomach a food acid to produce an alkaline reaction as is so frequently claimed for the citrus fruits. Any alkalinity attributable to these fruits is dependent upon the oxidation of the citric acid to carbonate after absorption has occurred.

Very few foods are found to be alkaline. The only common ones consistently so are graham crackers and cold storage eggs. Egg-white, shrimp, lobster and conchs are usually alkaline. Occasionally, soda crackers, sweetbreads, duck, clams, cantaloupe, fresh spinach,

* Pages 127 to 134 reprinted with permission from Am. Jour. Dig. Dis. 6, 440.
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and fresh or frozen corn may reach or exceed pH 7. The rapid shift of whole eggs to an alkaline reaction is shown in Table 7.

The cereals and cereal products which are so widely used in ulcer diets do not fall below pH 5 as a rule, except in the case of pumpernickel bread (pH 4.4). It should be stressed that the cereals were tested with addition of just enough water to moisten them. As consumed, more or less generous amounts of milk accompany the cereal and tend to raise the pH although it will be seen that many of these breakfast foods already exceed pH 6.

The introduction of milk or cream into a beverage or soup raises its pH. This is demonstrated in Table 63 (p. 744) under coffee, tea and chocolate beverages. It is also noticeable in the various soda-fountain drinks. A strawberry ice-cream soda of pH 4.75 is elevated to 5.20 by introduction of the customary "shot" of milk; the strawberry ice-cream in this instance was pH 5.60. Due to the fruit acid, a strawberry "frosted" (or milk shake) is more acid than a chocolate one (pH 5.82 and 6.33, respectively). The introduction of malt or egg raises the pH still further.

With the exception of tomato, the "home-made" cream soups were found to approximate pH 6.2; the corresponding canned products were more acid (as cream of pea, pH 6.17 and 5.72, home-made and canned, respectively; cream of mushroom, pH 6.20 and 5.95; and

TABLE 7.—Variation in pH of Eggs With Age.

Age	Whole	White	Yolk
3 hours	6.58	7.96	6.10
	7.00	8.20	6.88
12 hours (or less)	6.70	7.90	6.00
24 hours	6.62	8.30	6.10
	6.60	8.35	6.10
48 hours	7.43	8.89	6.17
	7.87	8.85	6.29
"New-laid" store eggs	7.72	9.18	6.64
	7.72		
Cold-storage eggs	7.50		
	7.60		
	7.69		
	7.58		
	7.32		
	8.20		
	7.90		
	7.62		
		8.87	
		8.99	
		8.80	
		8.90	
		9.00	
		8.63	
		9.00	
		9.00	
			7.00
			6.90
			6.38
			6.72
			6.82
			7.80
			7.20

Data carried across table represent analyses on the same egg, the white and yolk being mixed after separate testing.

cream of tomato, pH 5.62 and 4.62). In this connection it is interesting to note the reaction of broth (pH 5.5 to 6.2) since it is well recognized that broth is clinically contraindicated in cases of gastric hyperacidity. It is obvious, however, that the detrimental factor cannot be the pH of the broth.

Although plain gelatin gives a pH of 6.08, its preparation as a dessert involves the introduction of fruit acids so that the finished product is apt to be pH 3. Regardless of the fruit used, preserves and jellies usually vary from pH 3 to 4.

Honey is noteworthy in that it shows a pH of 3.8, in contrast with Karo and maple syrups at pH 4.5 and 5.15, respectively.

In general, the vegetables vary from pH 5 to 7. Exceptions are tomatoes between pH 4 and 5, and sorrel and sauerkraut which are more acid than pH 4. Canned vegetables and fruits also proved to be more acid than those freshly cooked, as shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8.—Comparison of the pH of Fresh and Canned Vegetables.

	Asparagus.	Beets.	Peas.	Corn.	Carrots.
Fresh . .	6.03-6.16	5.23-5.90	6.22-6.88	6.22-7.04	5.58-5.88
Canned . .	5.20-5.32	4.92-4.98	5.71-6.00	5.90-6.44	5.18-5.22

The frozen products have been found to be close to the reaction of the fresh-cooked vegetables with a definite tendency toward greater alkalinity.

Although practically no experiments were conducted to demonstrate the type of change involved in cooking, there appears to be a definite tendency toward greater alkalinity on boiling a food. In one instance, a sample of tomatoes was found to be pH 4.20; after it was stewed, the value was 4.32. Data on vegetables eaten both raw and cooked have been assembled in Table 9, but it must be stressed that the tests were conducted on totally different samples and so are not strictly comparable.

TABLE 9.—Comparison of pH Values on Some Raw and Cooked Vegetables.

Item.	Raw.	Cooked.
Cabbage, green	5.79-6.29	6.38-6.82
Cabbage, red	5.43-6.00	6.21-6.42
Carrots	5.96-6.00	5.58-5.88
Celery	5.86-6.00	5.37-5.92
Fennel	5.48-5.88	5.80-6.02
Leeks	5.51-6.07	5.79-6.16
Sorrel	2.98-3.27	3.49-3.80

Bananas, figs, papayas, persimmons and watermelons are less acid than most fruits and vary between pH 5 and 6. Melons of the cantaloupe type and avocados exceed pH 6 and may even be alkaline. The acid character of the fruits, however, is reflected in the pH encountered with the vast majority. With the exceptions noted, fresh, cooked and canned fruits vary from pH 3 to 5. Those below pH 3 include some of the grapes, plums and occasional samples of grapefruit juice. Cranberry juice is usually more acid

than pH 2.5 while limes and lemons are close to pH 2. Although it is possible that the tamarind, a tropical legume, is the most acid of our fruits, beverages made from it were found to vary from pH 2.60 to 2.82. Fruit drinks below pH 2.5 are rarely acceptable. Acidity greater than pH 3 renders a fruit unpalatable to many individuals.

Although difference in pH might be expected from sample to sample of the same item, remarkably little is encountered. For instance, the pH of Welsh rarebit removed from the hospital dining room was found to be 5.04 and nine months later a similar item was pH 5.08. Also, two bottles of grape juice of different brands both rated pH 3 and 3.05, 3.06 on dilution 1:1 with water, the tests being conducted over a year apart. These and similar observations would point to considerable consistency in the reaction of foods unless, of course, spoilage occurs.

TABLE 10.—Acid Activity* Over pH Range of Foods Reported.

pH.	Acid activity.	pH.	Acid activity.	pH.	Acid activity.
9.0	0.010	6.6	2.51	4.2	631.0
8.9	0.013	6.5	3.16	4.1	794.4
8.8	0.016	6.4	3.98	4.0	1,000.0
8.7	0.020	6.3	5.01	3.9	1,259.0
8.6	0.025	6.2	6.31	3.8	1,585.0
8.5	0.032	6.1	7.94	3.7	1,995.0
8.4	0.040	6.0	10.00	3.6	2,512.0
8.3	0.050	5.9	12.59	3.5	3,162.0
8.2	0.063	5.8	15.85	3.4	3,981.0
8.1	0.079	5.7	19.95	3.3	5,012.0
8.0	0.100	5.6	25.12	3.2	6,310.0
7.9	0.126	5.5	31.62	3.1	7,944.0
7.8	0.159	5.4	39.81	3.0	10,000.0
7.7	0.200	5.3	50.12	2.9	12,590.0
7.6	0.251	5.2	63.10	2.8	15,850.0
7.5	0.316	5.1	79.44	2.7	19,950.0
7.4	0.398	5.0	100.00	2.6	25,120.0
7.3	0.501	4.9	125.90	2.5	31,620.0
7.2	0.631	4.8	158.50	2.4	39,810.0
7.1	0.794	4.7	199.50	2.3	50,120.0
7.0	1.000	4.6	251.20	2.2	63,100.0
6.9	1.259	4.5	316.20	2.1	79,440.0
6.8	1.585	4.4	398.10	2.0	100,000.0
6.7	1.995	4.3	501.20	1.9	125,900.0

* If the decimal point of *Acid Activity* is moved seven places to the left, the resultant value will be hydrogen-ion concentration (gram/liter).

Hydrogen-ion Concentration versus pH.—The reaction of the various foods tested is presented in terms of pH. It will be noted that values designated as "average pH" are not given. Inasmuch as pH is logarithmic, it is not permissible to obtain its arithmetic mean. pH values cannot be treated as though they were actual numbers. No serious error, perhaps, would be committed in averaging the tabulated results of the foods herein presented, but such a practice would reveal lack of comprehension of the fundamental meaning of the term pH.

Since many workers in the field of nutrition have had limited experience with this term now current in every discussion, it is desirable to demonstrate by what simple means the significance of

H can be comprehended. The acidity of a medium is dependent upon the number of hydrogen ions present. When expressed in the conventional forms for designating concentration, the smallness of the value makes representation awkward. For example, a tangerine may be known to contain 0.00004467 gram H^+ per liter. Because of the difficulty in handling such a number, it is customary to write it as 4.467×10^{-5} . This arithmetical value may be more conveniently used in its logarithmic form, $1 \times 10^{-4.35}$, but this renders it well-nigh incomprehensible to the average interested reader. Once cast in this form, the corresponding pH may be obtained by discarding everything but the 4.35. This appears to be a number which can be easily understood, but in reality it is not a number at all. The four designates only the position of the decimal point in the real number to which the pH corresponds. Although the 35 is logarithmic, it cannot be located in any "log" table since it is negative. After conversion to a positive value, the table will reveal the significant figures in the real number, the decimal point being inserted as already indicated.

Moving acid on the pH scale from the theoretical neutral point of 7, each interval (as 0.1 pH) is greater (in terms of actual acidity) than the preceding; yet the pH scale shifts slowly downward toward hypothetical zero with a regular "arithmetic" progression. Consequently, the change in acidity is far greater between 3 and 4 than between 6 and 7, although from the pH scale the change would seem to be identical. Furthermore, the mid-point does not occur at 0.5 on the pH scale, but at 0.3. For instance, pH 6 is ten times as acid as pH 7, pH 6.5 is but slightly more than three times as acid, whereas 6.3 is five times as acid as pH 7 (see bold face figures in Table 10). Likewise, pH 4.8 and 4.9 are nearer to each other in actual acidity than 4.1 and 4.2, all of which makes comparison of pH values difficult for the uninitiated. Although it must be granted that pH values are easier to inspect, they are much harder to interpret than hydrogen-ion concentrations.

Unfortunately, acid concentration directly expressed involves mathematical forms with which many are unfamiliar. To remedy this difficulty and make comparison easy, tables are shown elsewhere (see p. 747). Although much of the information in these tables is similar to that offered by Wherry, the fundamental reasoning is very different. If the term, *acid activity* (which has no meaning with reference to these or any other data except as specifically stated) is multiplied by 10^{-7} (that is, by 0.0000001) the result will be the hydrogen-ion concentration in gram-equivalents per liter. Since this understood factor is the same throughout, evaluation of the corresponding pH values is readily undertaken. For example, how much more acid is the pH 2.0 of lime juice than the pH 3.6 of orange juice? From Table 10 it will be seen that lime juice is roughly forty times as acid as orange juice since their *acid activities* are 100,000 and 2512 respectively.

In Table 11 the effect of dilution of a fruit juice with water appears to be small from the standpoint of pH, yet if these data are recast

in terms of actual acidity, the change is obviously considerable. This table demonstrates how difficult it is to judge acidity merely from pH values.

The point on the pH scale at which hydrogen and hydroxyl ion equal each other, namely 7, is devoid of practical meaning. The sharp separation of solutions below 7 from those above it into acid and alkaline respectively is a wholly artificial device. The chemist largely disregards this theoretical neutral point and establishes new

TABLE 11.—Effect of Dilution on Acidity of Fruit Juices.*

	Straight.		Diluted 1:1 with water.		Diluted 1:5 with water.	
	pH	Acid activity.	pH	Acid activity.	pH	Acid activity.
Apple	3.62	2,399	3.68	2,089	3.72	1,906
Cranberry	2.40	39,810	2.60	25,120	2.94	11,480
Grape	3.00	10,000	3.06	8,710	3.13	7,413
Grapefruit	3.25	5,623	3.32	4,786	3.38	4,169
Lemon	2.32	47,860	2.55	28,180†
Pineapple	3.37	4,266	3.46	3,467	3.52	3,020
Tomato	4.10	794	4.15	708	4.20	631

* Commercially canned.

† Diluted 1:10 with water, otherwise unpalatable.

and different "neutral" points as necessitated by the type of chemical change under experimentation. The physiologist has still less use for pH 7 since biochemical processes are limited to definite concentrations of hydrogen ion without regard for the absolute neutral point. Gastric digestion, for instance, proceeds normally at pH 1.6 to 1.8; when this value reaches pH 3, the condition is described as anacidity. On the other hand, pH 7.2 is decidedly acidotic so far as blood plasma is concerned. Furthermore, litmus paper reacts "alkaline" below pH 7 so causing urine samples to be reported as alkaline when in reality they are on the acid side of neutrality. Extreme acidity in the stomach necessitates a pH of approximately 1.2; extreme acidity is reached in the urine at pH 4.6; fatal acidosis is encountered before the blood falls to pH 7. Each of these body fluids has its own normal or what might be termed "neutral" point from which it varies toward a relatively more acid or alkaline state. Each "acid-base" relationship is balanced about an individual point which is wholly unrelated to absolute neutrality (pH 7).

Clinical Interpretation.—It is possible that the future will demonstrate that the pH of the food *per se* is of little moment. Presumably the most important factor is the property of the individual food in stimulating the flow of gastric juice whether this be attributable to hydrogen ion, to other constituents in the food, or to products of digestion.

Actually few substances are introduced into the stomach which can compete with the acidity of HCl. Only 2.9 per cent of all the foods tested showed values less than pH 3. None approximated normal gastric acidity at the height of digestion (pH 1.6 to 1.8). Those foods which reach the level of low gastric acidity (pH 2.0 to

4), as lemons and limes are rarely consumed as such. The immediate physical effect of introducing food into the stomach, be the food highly acid or not, is to dilute the gastric juice and so diminish the acidity, but the normal response to the presence of food is secretion of sufficient HCl and pepsin for the digestion thereof. Consequently, the ultimate result may be increased acidity regardless of the original reaction of the food.

Although foods vary in their ability to stimulate the flow of gastric juice, this effect is largely an individual matter so that generalizations are more or less meaningless when applied to specific cases. The gastric response depends upon idiosyncrasy of taste, varies with the whim of the subject during health, and is markedly altered during illness. Fatigue, nervous strain, mental abnormalities and the like may occasion unusual and unexpected variation in gastric behavior.

Because of the psychic, thermal, and mechanical stimuli of dining, it is difficult to determine the precise behavior of foods under reproducible conditions. Even water will stimulate the flow of gastric juice. The hyperacidity associated with overingestion of water in diabetes insipidus is a case in point. Coffee and tea are both associated with increased gastric acidity. Alcoholic beverages, in small amounts, induce acid secretion although gastric hypoacidity is common among chronic alcoholics. Tobacco is in no sense a food adjunct, but smoking in moderation stimulates production of hydrochloric acid. Extremely hot or cold foods have an irritating action upon the stomach which may result in increased acidity.

The level of the gastric acid is believed by some to be related to the blood sugar. Administration of insulin produces hypoglycemia and also stimulates the flow of hydrochloric acid. It has yet, however, to be conceded that hyperacidity universally accompanies hypoglycemia and *vice versa*, although excellent clinical results have been secured by avoiding the reduction of blood sugar in patients with excess gastric acid.

The most abundant and best sustained secretion of acid is achieved with meat, partially digested protein being the exciting agent. Broths, meat extracts and stock soups as well as gravies elevate gastric acid. Smoked and brined foods, mustard, pepper, horseradish, chili-sauce, salad dressings, pickles, garlic, sweet herbs, spices, mushrooms (an otherwise useless food), and fruit flavors as well as aromatic substances characteristic of many of our foods and beverages add to the zest of eating and act as gastric stimulants. New, unfermented cider is thought to be one of the strongest acid producers. From clinical experience, the leafy vegetables have proved somewhat acid-stimulating. The effects have been attributed to the presence of organic acids.

The irritating action of citrus fruits in ulcer cases is so well known that these patients are routinely deprived of this source of vitamin C for long periods of time. Symptoms of scurvy not infrequently develop under these conditions. Orange juice on an empty stomach is scarcely to be recommended for ulcer patients, yet sufficiently

"buffered" by the various constituents of the Sippy diet enough of this fruit juice can be given to ward off ascorbic acid deficiency. Although a consistent daily intake of 25 mg. will suffice, double the amount is desirable. Insofar as actual pH is concerned, the acidity of orange juice can be counteracted by addition of sodium bicarbonate just prior to ingestion but it is preferable to include it with the meal. Many patients encounter no difficulty with as much as 3 to 4 ounces of orange juice when it is immediately preceded and followed by a like amount of milk. Alteration in pH values of Sippy diet mixtures is shown in Table 12 although it must be stressed repeatedly that the pH of the mixture is not the sole factor determining the effect in the stomach.

TABLE 12.—The Effect of Orange Juice on Sippy Diet Mixtures.

Food mixtures.	pH
Cream, 20 per cent	6.60
3 t. cream + 1 t. orange juice	5.00
Farina with 20 per cent cream	6.70
3 t. cream-cereal + 1 t. orange juice	4.93
Beaten egg with 20 per cent cream	6.90
3 t. cream-egg + 1 t. orange juice	5.85
Orange juice used throughout	3.75

It is suggested that ulcer patients do not attempt to swallow the 50-mg. tablets of cevitic acid sometimes prescribed. In a minimum amount of water such tablets give a pH in the neighborhood of 3. Increase in the volume of water raises the pH. When taken with food, this acid scarcely affects the pH (as shown in Table 13) and is usually well tolerated by the patient.

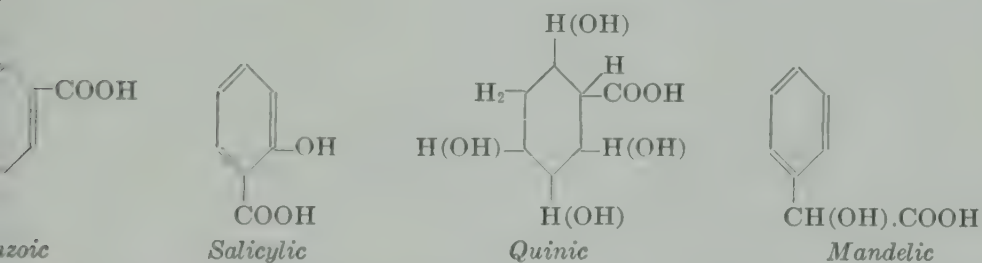
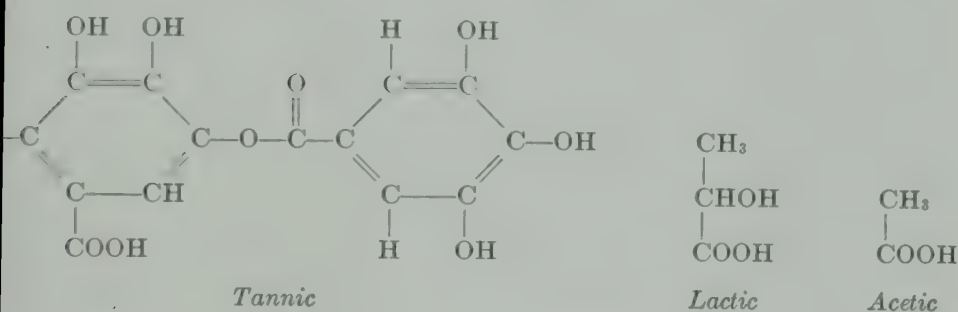
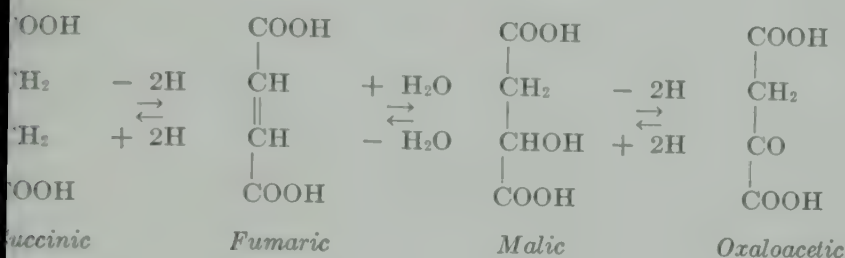
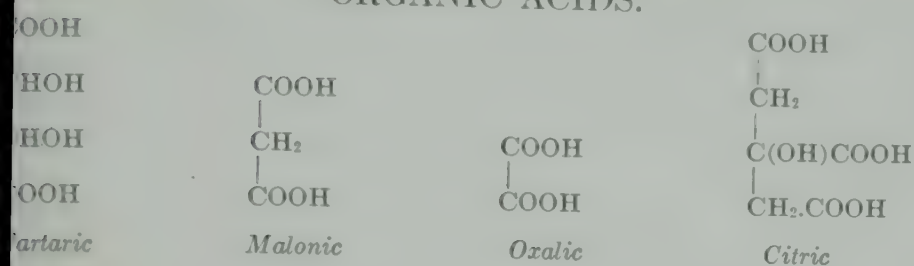
TABLE 13.—The Effect of Cevitic Acid on Ulcer-diet Mixtures.

Food mixtures.	pH
Cevitic acid Solution I (50 mg. suspension in 50 cc. water) .	3.42
Cream, 20 per cent	6.53
4 t. cream + 5 cc. Solution I	6.52
Cevitic acid (50 mg.) in 10 cc. cream	5.70
1 t. Farina + 2 t. cream	6.72
with 5 cc. Solution I	6.62
Beaten egg	7.48
4 t. egg + 5 cc. Solution I	7.30

Organic Acids in Foods.—It has already been pointed out that it is, at times, necessary to take cognizance of the acidity of the diet as received into the stomach. The reaction of the food is also a matter of interest to the dentist. In general, fruit acids are found chiefly in the free state whereas vegetable acids occur more frequently as salts. Since knowledge concerning their physiologic behavior has resulted in a widening appreciation of their varied functions, it is desirable for the nutritionist to become familiar with these chemical agents.

According to Nelson, many erroneous statements regarding the incidence of specific acids in fruits have been retained in supposedly authoritative works. Malonic acid, for instance, is *not* found in fruits. Oxalic, benzoic, succinic and lactic acids never occur in large quantities. Despite reports to the contrary, Nelson insists

ORGANIC ACIDS.



at few fruits except the tamarind and grape (including raisins, of course) contain appreciable amounts of tartaric acid.

The two predominating acids in fruits and vegetables are malic and citric. Table 66 (Appendix) which presents values for the dry components of a few fruits, vegetables, and miscellaneous foods concerned, therefore, largely with these acids. The acidity of oranges, lemons, grapefruit, limes, and most berries is almost entirely due to citric acid. This acid occurs free in tomatoes. Apples, pears, and apricots contain malic as well as citric acid. Rhubarb, apples, and quinces owe their acidity to malic acid. Probably all the acid in cantaloupe is citric, that in watermelon is malic (Bigelow and Dunbar).

Malic Acid.—This acid is rapidly metabolized in the body and is a potential alkalinizer. The vegetables are notably poor in *l*-malic acid although much occurs in fruits and their jellies. This acid is found in molasses from sugar-cane. The “sand” seen in the sap of the sugar maple is calcium malate.

Citric Acid.—There appears to be no limit to the ability of the body to oxidize citric acid. It can be oxidized or synthesized with equal facility according to physiologic need. It is elaborated chiefly from carbohydrate and fat residues in response to excessive alkalinity (Smith and Meyer, 1939). According to Orten and Smith (1933) it is produced chiefly in the kidney or depends upon this organ for its formation. Citric acid is widely distributed in body fluids and cells, yet does not seem to be stored in any tissue; its concentration in tissues rarely exceeds 2 mg. per cent. Its destruction occurs in the liver and in the muscles.

Differing from the acid in its behavior, sodium citrate ingestion is followed by a large urinary output. The disodium salts of succinic, fumaric, malic and malonic acids result in marked urinary excretion of citric acid. Sodium bicarbonate will raise the usual urinary citric acid concentration of 0.25 to 1 gram per day to 2 or more grams. On the other hand, administration of hydrochloric acid or acidifying salts, as ammonium or calcium chloride, cause a significant decrease in the excretion of citrate. According to the hypothesis of Oestberg (1931) citrate functions as a "physiologic acid" for the removal of excess base from the body just as ammonia is the "physiologic base" for the conservation of sodium, potassium and calcium when acid radicals are drained out through the kidneys.

On a low-phosphorus but otherwise adequate diet, Schneider and Steenbock report finding urinary calculi composed almost entirely of calcium citrate. Possibly this may serve as a nidus upon which other salts precipitate under different dietary conditions.

The biochemistry of citric acid is important because of its connection with carbohydrate metabolism and vitamin function. Citric acid can be synthesized *in vitro* from pyruvic and oxaloacetic acids (Knoop and Martius, 1936). Apparently this synthesis occurs physiologically (Hallman and Simola). It is probable that vitamin B₁ plays an essential rôle in the decarboxylation of the precursor of citric acid formed from pyruvic and oxaloacetic acids. The chain of reaction continues through α -ketoglutaric, succinic, fumaric, and malic acid to oxaloacetic again. By this process pyruvic acid is converted into carbon dioxide:



Succinic Acid.—The dicarboxylic acids possessing four carbon atoms function as extremely important catalysts in oxidation. The chemical relationships may be seen on p. 135. In biologic oxidations the hydrogen of the foodstuff and the respired oxygen react only through a series of cytochromes (iron-containing compounds), succinic, fumaric, malic and oxaloacetic acids under the instrumentality of various enzymes.

Szent-Györgyi (1939) has elucidated the function of the dehydrogenase of succinic acid—an extraordinary enzyme in muscle tissue considering that this acid itself is not one of those found to any extent in foodstuffs. So far as is known, no substance other than succinate, activated by its dehydrogenase, can reduce cytochrome

cinodehydrogenase is distinct from other dehydrogenases in requiring no codehydrogenase. The latter, it will be recalled, include pyridine-containing vitamins.

Tartaric Acid.—The fate of tartaric acid in the body is uncertain. In excessively large amounts, it is nephrotoxic. Unlike citric acid which is not attacked in the intestinal tract, tartaric acid is readily broken down, sometimes to potassium carbonate which on absorption is said to account for the alkalinizing effect noted by some investigators. Since tartaric is not the only organic acid in grapes and raisins, the reported potential alkalinity of these substances may be attributed to these other acids.

The acidity of wines is expressed as tartaric acid and varies from 0.5 to 1.7 per cent (Jacobs, 1938).

Oxalic Acid.—Like citric acid, oxalic acid is a normal constituent of blood and urine. Its metabolism is imperfectly understood. Doubtless the urinary oxalate, which amounts to 15 to 20 mg. *per diem*, is both endogenous and exogenous. Food oxalates are rendered soluble by a plentiful supply of gastric acid although they may subsequently be precipitated in the intestinal tract. Lack of hydrochloric acid permits the passage of bacteria and is associated with increased intestinal fermentation in which soluble oxalates are released presumably from carbohydrate precursors. There is increased oxalate excretion whenever glucose metabolism is irregular. Incomplete oxidation due to oxygen deficiency has been thought to be a cause of the increased output of oxalic acid. Insulin lowers blood oxalate whereas adrenalin raises it.

The oxalic acid content of some common foods is presented in Table 68 (Appendix).

Lactic Acid.—One of the chief advantages of milk sugar, especially when given in fair dosage, is that it escapes digestion and absorption, thus reaching the lower intestinal tract where it is available for use as a bacterial substrate. The lactic acid produced aids in the absorption of calcium and phosphorus and in the elimination of toxic wastes by increasing intestinal motility.

Lactic acid is a normal constituent of blood (15 to 25 mg. per cent) and urine (0.05 to 0.2 gram *per diem*). It is increased during exercise whenever the supply of oxygen is inadequate. It is chiefly a metabolic acid, but may be ingested in appreciable amounts as in the case of lactic acid milk prescribed for babies and used in gastro-intestinal disturbances. Such milk is associated with increased acidity of the urine due to unusual amounts of phosphates; the lactic acid is completely oxidized.

Sour and fermented milks contain variable quantities of lactic acid, usually about 1 per cent. Winton gives the following values: Swiss, 0.6 to 1 per cent (alcohol, 2.7 to 2.9 per cent); kefir, 0.7 to 1.1 per cent (alcohol, 0.2 to 1.1 per cent); yoghurt, 0.8 per cent; and buttermilk, 1.6 per cent.

Under bacterial action the lactose of cheese is converted into lactic acid. These two usually are reported under the one heading and they vary from less than 0.5 to over 50 per cent. The hard rennet

cheeses, as a rule, do not exceed 2.6 per cent lactic acid. Some what higher concentrations are encountered with soft rennet cheeses. Cottage cheese, which belongs to the sour milk group, has been reported at over 4.3 per cent lactic acid. Whey cheese, as the Scandinavian Mysost, while it may rate over 56 per cent lactose + lactic acid, contains less than 4 per cent lactic acid. Many of the lower fatty acids, as butyric, are also found in cheese.

Minute amounts of lactic acid occur in fresh eggs. This is increased on incubation.

Lactic acid has been reported in apples, raspberries, cherries and tamarinds (Smith and Orten). Sauerkraut juice usually varies from 1 to 1.5 per cent lactic acid. Dill pickles contain 0.25 per cent of this acid.

Tannic Acid.—The tannins are a group of astringent aromatic organic acids widely distributed in plants and important as flavoring agents. The term is indefinite and may refer merely to tannic acid (also known as digallic and gallotannic acid) or to glucoside derivatives. Tannic acid is not the only astringent in fruits. The pigment *enin* in dark-colored grapes, for example, gives most of the reactions of the tannins but is less astringent. In officially accepted methods, tannin and coloring matter are determined together.

Depending upon the conditions of brewing, variable amounts of tannic acid are removed from tea leaves which have been reported to contain tannin in amounts from 4 to 26 per cent. Appreciable quantities of tannin occur in coffee beans. The longer tea and coffee are subjected to boiling water, the greater the percentage of tannic acid extracted.

Tannins which occur in the astringent fruits tend to diminish with ripening or on storage. The American persimmon, for instance, has been reported to change from a concentration of 2 per cent to a trace in five to eight days' storage. The tannin content of blackberry, raspberry, strawberry, and cherry juice amounts to approximately 0.1 per cent, in pear juice to about 0.2 per cent. Less than 0.1 per cent tannin is found in quince. Plums may contain over 0.2 per cent tannin, strawberries and black currants over 0.4 per cent. Apples vary from 0.01 to 0.4 per cent, grapes likewise. Apples with a fair tannin content are desirable for cider. Commercial apple powder contains 1.4 per cent tannin and coloring matter.

Uronic Acids.—The so-called unavailable carbohydrates include the pectins which are responsible for jell formation on heating certain acid fruits with sugar. The pectin "nucleus" is galacturonic acid anhydride. The uronic acids related to glucose and galactose function as detoxifying agents in the intestinal tract and are essential in the synthesis of mucin.

The uronic acid concentration of apples and cranberries may exceed 1 per cent; commercial apple powder is reported to contain 9.2 per cent. Manville gives filtered lemon and tomato juices a uronic acid value of 0.2 per cent, filtered orange juice 0.4 per cent and winesap apple juice 0.5 per cent; (apples varied in uronic acid content from 0.7 to 1.6 per cent). The pectin content of a few varieties of apples is shown in Table 14.

TABLE 14.—Pectin Content of Apples and Apple Powder.*

Variety.	Fresh apple, per cent.	Apple powder, per cent.
Jonathan	2.08	2.45
Winesap	3.12	5.33
Spitzenberg	4.27	6.07
Yellow Newtown	5.55	10.99

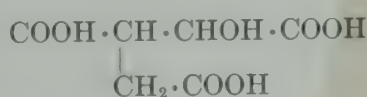
(100 grams of raw apple are required to make 15 grams of powder.)

Manville *et al.*: Canad. Med. Assn. Jour., 36, 252, 1937.

Although apples undoubtedly offer the richest source of easily available pectin, other plant foods contain notable amounts of pectin. Uronic acid precursor. Currants are especially rich in pectin. Grapes, green grapes, green gooseberries and citrous all (white peel) are also satisfactory sources of pectin. Raspberries and plums contain a little uronic acid, peaches and ripe strawberries practically none. Although the jellying properties of vegetables are not encountered ordinarily, turnips, carrots, beets and other roots are excellent sources of pectin. Tomatoes and rhubarb also contain this substance in appreciable amounts. Tomato pomace has been reported to yield 3.8 per cent pectin (McCay and Smith, 1940). The animal sources of uronic acid are mucin and chondroitin. The latter is found almost exclusively in the connective tissues. Meat products rich in this factor include head cheese, pickled pig's feet, spare ribs, joints and knuckles (Manville, 1936).

Less Common Food Acids.—In a review of the nutritional and metabolic significance of certain organic acids, Smith and Orten list the occurrence of the less common food acids: *succinic acid* in grapes, rhubarb, raspberries, cherries and blackberries; *malonic acid* in barley, oats, wheat and alfalfa; *glyoxylic acid* in grape juice; *aconitic acid* in barley, maize, rye, wheat and oats; and *tricarballic acid* in barley and maize.

Eighty-five per cent of the acidity of blackberries is due to *isocitric acid*,



It would appear that this acid, rather than citric, is the physiologically active agent in the tricarboxylic acid cycle wherein carbohydrate, protein and fat degradation products meet during metabolic changes (See p. 136). The rôle of citric acid and its isomer in nutrition is still only vaguely understood.

Although the existence of *benzoic acid* in cherries, plums and grapes has been widely recognized, this is by no means the chief acid in these fruits. *Quinic acid* is found in both types of fruit to the extent of about 1 per cent as against 0.5 per cent for benzoic acid. The fate of quinic acid within the body, however, is similar to that of benzoic acid into which it appears to be converted before conjugation with glycine for excretion as hippuric acid (Quick, 1931). Lague and Fellers found the benzoic acid content of 24 varieties of cherries to vary from 0.029 to 0.098 per cent, with an average of 0.065 per cent. This concentration of benzoic acid is sufficient to act as a preservative.

Salicylic acid, in the form of its methyl ester, occurs in apples, apricots, blackberries, cherries, Concord grapes, currants, oranges, plums, raspberries and strawberries (Hartmann and Hillig). Salicylic acid has also been reported in pumpkin. This acid apparently is excreted in the urine largely in unconjugated form (Quick, 1933).

The quantity of *sulfuric acid* in apple juice is considerable where large amounts of sulfate manure have been used as an orchard fertilizer.

Functions of Food Acids.—There is increasing recognition of the possibility that certain foods may possess specific physiologic effects apart from the provision of nutriment. The apple and banana, in particular, fall into this category and have been used in the prevention and treatment of diarrheal conditions and other intestinal disorders, especially in infants (Shields, 1939). Quoting from Kantor and Cooper: The criteria of ripeness in bananas are (1) skin which is entirely yellow and generously flecked with brown, and (2) pulp which has softened. At this stage practically all the starch has been converted into easily digested sugars. Attention should be called to the fact that in the ripening process the tip of the fruit is the last portion to show traces of green color. It may therefore be used as an indicator of fitness for consumption. Obviously, it is not correct to cut off the green portion and offer the rest of the unripe fruit to be eaten.

With some success pre-meals of bananas, oranges or apples have been employed to counteract gastro-intestinal disturbances (Bergeim, 1936). The procedure involves the ingestion of two bananas, for instance, ninety minutes before both lunch and dinner, and again before retiring. The high-banana diet results in a tremendous increase in the formation of butyric acid in the colon. This is one of the most toxic substances for yeast and *B. coli*. Dehydrated apple likewise promotes the growth of acidophilic organisms in the intestines by adjustment of the reaction of the medium. For summer diarrheas in older children and adults, Manville (1938) recommends 200 cc. of 8 per cent apple powder in water to be taken every two hours supported by a bland diet.

Scraped, raw apple is usually regarded as more effective than other forms of apple therapy. Birnberg (1933) employed 1 to 4 T. every one to two hours, nothing else but water being permitted until formed stools appeared (generally within forty-eight hours). It is regarded as essential that the apple be unhampered in its action, whatever that may be, by the presence of other food, especially proteins. Manville, however, has used mixtures of apple and milk powders.

The effectiveness of the apple diet is attributed to pectin which takes up much water in providing bulk in a form which is relatively soothing to irritated membranes. The soft absorptive mass carries out bacteria which might otherwise cling to the intestinal walls. Pectin *per se* manifests this colloidal behavior but loses such properties on hydrolysis. The resulting galacturonic acid acts as a detoxifying agent. It is probable that pectin aids in the maintenance of

thy mucous membranes. Chemically it is related to glucuronic, the carbohydrate of mucin. Manville (1938) has suggested a relationship may exist between the functional activity of vitamin A and these acids. Pectin may possess a specific healing effect in the gastro-intestinal tract judging by the investigations of Jones (1937) and Thomson (1938) which indicate that pectinized dressings are highly efficacious against infection and unhealthy granulation in wounds and burns.

For commercial preparations of pectin and pectin-agar have been employed for treating diarrheas and dysenteries. These lack astringency of the apple (attributable to tannin) but are as effective sometimes more so in the acutely ill.

Pectins are useful also in the relief of constipation especially where coarse fiber is too irritating. The laxative action of the pectin is ascribed to bulk obtained with roughage, but a possible component may be pectin rather than cellulose (Bresnahan, 1936). The behavior of pectin in this regard is depressed in its capacity for absorbing water and "lubricating" the intestinal wall.

Food acids may assist the stomach in its function as a barrier against bacterial invasion. This property is dependent upon an adequate concentration of hydrochloric acid. According to Manville extensive inability to elaborate this acid does not reach a maximum until the age of twenty. Consequently, babies and very young children may not have sufficient acid for the needs of digestion and are classified as hypochlorhydric of the tract. Hot weather and fever are associated with a reduction of gastric acidity. Once the adult passes the forties the production of hydrochloric acid gradually diminishes. As shown for several reasons, then, the sterilization mechanism of the stomach may fail. Alkaline foods and a process of Berg and especially interfere with this self-disinfecting process. The power of phosphate at a proportion of the available hydrochloric acid which contain little more to be excellent justification, therefore, for the use of phosphate products with meats.

On the other hand, in the various fruit acids exert a highly beneficial effect on the content of calcium in the alimentary tract. The group as a whole is bivalent if there is no phosphate. It is generally recognized that liberal amounts of phosphoric acid, fruits and vegetables should be provided in the diet. It is trivalent when, of course, that their vitamin and mineral content neutralize all the acids. Too often the benefit of such dietary items must be considered in relation to "alkalinize" the body. Undoubtedly insoluble salts with acids, malic and citric, are potential alkalizers. The acid-base balance of the body may be emphasized to the exclusion of other factors which is based on characteristics. Their rôle in the gastro-intestinal tract or sulfur and chlorine has not been described, bears no relation to possible effects on the ash directly but is dependent upon their acidity or upon their originators of "ash."

Effect of Fruits on Calcium Retention.—The conclusions made in reaching the opinion of the possibility that "intestinal acid approximations. Those determining factor in the absorption of calcium from the ash, however, are the nature of the basal ration"—Robinson and figures.

known, acidity increases the absorption of calcium and phosphorus, whereas alkalinity retards or prevents it. After absorption, acidifying agents remove calcium and phosphorus from the body while increasing alkalinity favors deposit in the bones. Shohl is observed that rickets could be produced on non-rachitogenic diets by the introduction of ammonium chloride and carbonate. On the other hand, the addition of citric acid and its sodium salt to rachitogenic diets prevented the development of rickets. This effect of citrates was believed to involve more than the mere acid-base possibility. Investigations by Mindell and co-workers indicate that raspberries and, to a greater extent, apples increase body retention of calcium. Earlier, Chaney and Blunt had observed that orange supplements to a normal diet resulted in greater calcium retention. It would appear that the organic acids not only function as intestinal acidifiers but also play some rôle in mineral metabolism.

is electric which is converted

METABOLIC REACTION OF FOODS.

to the fact of **Mineral Residues.**—Oxidation of food within the body portion to the formation of a *residue* or *ash*. When sodium, potassium, calcium, and magnesium predominate over sulfate, phosphate, to cut off and uncombusted organic acid radicals, they are designated to be eaten as "neutral-ash" foods. Most vegetables and fruits are *alkaline* in

With so reaction within the body whereas meats, poultry, fish, been emphasized, and cereals are *acidic*. It should be noted that a "German, 1936)" diet does not necessarily produce an alkaline residue. For instance, Rick has pointed out, a high-cereal intake may have a before retires effect than an ordinary mixed diet. From the standpoint increase in the archy foods fall into two groups: (1) Cereal and grain the most toxic yield acid substances on oxidation; and (2) tubers likewise promote produce an alkaline reaction. The banana is an times by adjustment fruit. The legumes, except peanuts and lentils, are diarrheas in old as potential alkalizers. Since the mineral content 200 cc. of 8 per centure fats and pure carbohydrates is negligible, they hours supported neutral-ash substances. Such foods include tapioca,

Scraped, raw syrups, cream, butter, etc.

forms of apple that a food as ingested is no criterion as to the ultimate one to two hour base balance of the body. When foods are ashed formed stools appear some show a strongly alkaline reaction whereas regarded as essentially neutral ash. This residue gives no clue as to whatever that may be substances lost through volatilization. Since, proteins. Manville elements are retained in the ash, a neutral residue.

preponderance of acid-forming constituents in The effectiveness of sulfur, which exists chiefly in protein combination, takes up much water elled during ignition. The sulfate of the ash soothing to irritated by small part of the food sulfur. If the base-out bacteria which predominate, loss of acid-forming elements is Pectin *per se* manifests obtain numerical values for food "ash" it ties on hydrolysis. That the concentrations of the various elements fying agent. It is problem in terms of equivalents, and to express

the excess of one group over the other as cubic centimeters (or milliequivalents) of normal acid or base per 100 grams of edible food material. Such figures are referred to as *degrees of acidity or alkalinity*. Since this involves an enormous amount of painstaking analytical work, accumulation of data has been limited to a few investigators, notably Sherman in this country, McCance and Widdowson in Great Britain, and Berg in Germany.

Evaluation of Mineral Residues.—Although numerical values for acidic and basic ash foods are stated by various American authors, credit for the data is ascribed to Sherman with only a few isolated exceptions where special analyses were made. Considerable variety appears in the literature due in part to the fact that Sherman in various editions of his text-books deletes certain items and adds others. Liberties also have been taken with the intention of making the Sherman data more widely applicable. Waller credits Sherman (1916 and 1928) with her information but presents items presumably arrived at by calculation. Other values have doubtless crept in through error, notably that of Sansum and Bowden whose figure of 30 for oysters has been widely quoted; Sherman, it is true, lists oysters at 30 degrees of acidity but on the basis of 100 Calories (the correct figure is 15 per 100 grams).

Since the method of computation is the same, the recent extensive tabulation of McCance and Widdowson compares well, on the whole, with Sherman's analyses. Berg, however, is frequently at variance with the American data even to the point of altering the classification. Part of the difference is dependent upon the method of calculating the acidity equivalent of phosphorus. The phosphate ion is considered trivalent by Berg and divalent by Sherman. As shown by Davidson and LeClere, the stoichiometric relations of the ash constituents should occupy a place between the figures of Berg and the less acid ones of Sherman, since the neutralizing power of phosphoric acid varies with the base. In cereals (which contain little calcium or magnesium) the phosphate anion ought to be considered partly monovalent and partly bivalent. On the other hand, in vegetables (which generally have a relatively high content of calcium and magnesium) this anion should be treated as trivalent if there is enough of these bases to combine with all the phosphoric acid, and partly monovalent, partly bivalent, and partly trivalent when there is not enough calcium and magnesium to neutralize all the phosphoric acid. The sulfur content likewise must be considered in this connection, since it forms a relatively insoluble salt with calcium. A new method for determining the acid-base balance of food has been offered by Davidson and LeClere which is based on the direct titration of the ash with corrections for sulfur and chlorine lost during the combustion. Frear also titrates the ash directly after treatment with magnesium nitrate. All originators of "ash" data recognize the extent of the assumptions made in reaching numerical values which, at best, are only approximations. Those who are interested in using alkaline and acidic ash tables, however, are often unaware of the real nature of the figures.

In Table 67 (Appendix) are shown figures for the acidity and alkalinity of the ash of many foods and beverages. These values should be used, if at all, with the greatest discretion. It is seriously doubted that they should be employed (as does Higgins, p. 574) for the computation of diets. It is, however, our opinion that the Higgins' diets are capable of doing no harm whereas this is not necessarily true of the strict acidic or alkaline-ash diet.

It is interesting to note that this tabulated data from the literature shows macaroni, whether cooked or raw, as acidifying. Cheddar cheese also rates an acid ash, yet "macaroni and cheese" as served is found to give an alkaline ash. Although cheese is usually listed as acidic, Gruyère and Parmesan are reported as leaving an alkaline residue. Raw peas give an alkaline ash, but when cooked or canned are acidic. An English apple pie is metabolically acid, an American one alkaline. An English rice pudding is alkaline, an American one with raisins (a highly "alkaline" food) is reported to be acid! Rusk, which might be thought to fall into the same category as bread or Zwieback, is found to be alkaline, as is German pumpernickel bread. Boiled Swiss chard (sea-kale) is acid and fried smelts alkaline. Cream of pea and tomato soups are alkaline, but potato soup is acid. It is all very confusing if taken too seriously.

Specific Value of "Ash" Constituents.—Too often acidity or alkalinity of the ash is the only criterion applied to a food. It is apparently forgotten that those elements which are responsible for the character of the ash have specific functions within the body. Since the body continually requires replenishment, it must discard what it has used or what it cannot use. It is possible to be so intrigued with balancing the acids and bases discarded that the purpose of the source material is completely ignored. It is for this reason that attention is directed to the ash constituents as individuals. The conventional classification is shown in the following:

<i>Group I.</i> <i>Acidic-Ash Foods.</i>	<i>Group II.</i> <i>Neutral-Ash Foods.</i>	<i>Group III.</i> <i>Alkaline-Ash Foods.</i>
Meats, fish, poultry	Butter	Fruits, except as shown
Eggs, cheese	Cream	Vegetables
Cereals	Cooking fats	Milk
Nuts (filberts, peanuts, walnuts)	Starches	Nuts (almonds, brasils, chestnuts, cocoanut)
Cranberries, plums, prunes	Sugars, syrups	

A diet confined to any of these lists is generally regarded as nutritionally unsatisfactory because it is deficient in recognized essential constituents to be found in the other groups. A well-rounded diet demands foods listed in all three.

In computing the acidity or alkalinity of the diet *from the standpoint of ash*, the chemical separation is as follows:

Acid elements —Cl, S, P.

Basic elements—Na, K, Ca, Mg.

Acid Elements.—Although *chlorides* are found in varying concentration in natural foods, salt added at the table or in the processing of the viands constitutes the major source of this element. Inasmuch as sodium chloride retention or loss involves a comparable

ount of water and those mineral constituents which participate in osmotic equilibria, it is not without effect on the acid-base balance of the tissues, but this is a matter controlled by use of sodium bicarbonate as such and is not concerned with the dietary residue as ordinarily construed.

Sulfuric acid is almost entirely derived from protein. Peters and Van Slyke have calculated that the ingestion of 100 grams of protein results in the metabolic release of H_2SO_4 equivalent to 600 cc. 0.1 normal acid. Base must be provided for neutralization. The amines (found in sperm cells) are the only proteins which do not contain sulfur. Regardless of the selection of meat, cereals, vegetables or dairy products sulfur is present. More than one author has hazarded a guess as to protein requirements. While it is probably true that 25 grams of especially selected protein may meet the body's minimal need, conservative authorities still recommend three times that amount "to be on the safe side." The consequences of indiscriminate restriction of protein intake during the last two decades do not encourage the physician to lower the dietary protein merely for the sake of diminishing urinary sulfate excretion, particularly since these sulfates do not affect the urinary acidity.

In nature, potassium and sodium are usually combined with chlorine and sulfur to form neutral salts. Hence acidity or basicity of food ash is often determined by the ratio of its calcium and magnesium to its *phosphorus*. Phosphorus is a highly desirable element in the diet. It is ingested as inorganic salts, phosphoproteins, nucleoproteins, phospholipins, and phytins. Certain phosphorus compounds are less available than others. A variable amount (20 to 60 per cent) of ingested phytins (calcium-magnesium salts of inositolhexaphosphoric acid) are excreted unchanged. The fate of the remainder is obscure. On the average, 97.5 per cent of the phosphorus of animal origin is utilizable. Where cereals constitute a large part of the dietary, the total phosphorus content is a wholly incorrect guide as to the available phosphorus. A diminished phosphorus intake is nutritionally not desirable although the foods in which it may be derived are subject to wide choice.

Basic Elements.—In plant foods there is an excess of potassium over sodium rendering many of them (such as the potato) unpalatable to the average taste (not wholly an acquired characteristic) unless sodium chloride is added. Both *sodium* and *potassium* are needed in the diet so that the body may maintain the proper ratio of these elements in its tissues. No diets (except possibly those of extreme faddists) are apt to be deficient in either of these bases.

Magnesium occurs in ample amounts in the average diet. No experimental data are available on the optimal intake of this element. Diminished blood magnesium has been reported subsequent to a diet of milk and refined cereals. There appears, however, to be no occasion in the light of present knowledge to concern ourselves over magnesium. No special dietary precautions are needed for any of the bases except calcium which all too often is consumed in sub-minimal amounts.

The richest source of wholly assimilable *calcium* is to be found in the rennet cheeses, which by reason of their protein content must be grouped with the acidic-ash foods. Spinach was once rated high in "alkalinizing" value (Sherman has deleted the fig. from his later works, 1935) and as a good source of iron and calcium. Today it is recognized that its calcium is useless and that its oxalic acid concentration results in squandering calcium from other sources. If this element is to be efficiently utilized, additional dietary lactate and citric acid are desirable since they favor absorption by forming soluble non-ionized compounds (Nordbö, 1939). Also, vitamins A and D should be adequately supplied together with calcium-rich foods. It will generally be conceded that on an acid diet more calcium is required for maintenance than on an alkaline diet, but the acidity of the intestinal tract is as important in calcium metabolism as is the acidity of the urine.

Organic Food Acids.—The results of ash analyses do not necessarily demonstrate the effect of organic acids since their fate in the body depends not only upon their nature, but also upon their concentration and alimentary environment. Combustion of organic acids leads to the formation of carbonates in the laboratory. Under physiologic conditions, malic and citric acids are readily converted into carbonic acid but benzoic and related acids (as quinic) probably cannot be metabolized at all. Although cranberries, prunes and plums give an alkaline ash *in vitro*, a portion of their organic acids appear in the urine as hippuric acid; thus, they are urinary acidifiers. A variable portion of tartaric acid results in an alkaline residue. According to Sherman (1937) this acid is not oxidized at all in the body despite the fact that only a small fraction of it appears in the excreta; it is presumed that potassium acid tartrate is attacked in the gastro-intestinal tract with the formation of potassium bicarbonate which may be absorbed and render the urine less acid. The metabolism of other acids, such as oxalic, is more or less obscure. It should be recognized that oxalic acid is readily converted into potassium carbonate *in vitro* but not *in vivo*. It therefore contributes to the alkalinity of the "ash" without being available as an alkalinizer to the body.

Organic acids occur in foods both free and as salts. When they "burn" to CO_2 and H_2O , they leave no solid matter to be excreted except the base with which they may have been combined. The base then enters into a new combination with tissue constituents or with acids claiming excretion by the kidneys. Those foods which provide these organic acids are highly desirable but their value probably far exceeds their "alkalinizing" property. The fruit and vegetable acids are being assigned increasingly extensive rôles in physiologic processes (see p. 140). Many of the benefits accredited to an alkaline ash régime may be dependent upon other factors. The acidifying fruits (cranberries and prunes) share this credit with the alkalinizing plant foods.

Metabolic Acids.—Metabolic processes result in the formation of sulfuric, phosphoric, hydroxy (as lactic), keto (as diacetic), oxalic

and uric acids. Normal kidney function adequately provides for the removal of sulfuric and phosphoric acids. *Hydroxy* and *keto acids* are combusted in the presence of suitable amounts of glucose simultaneously undergoing oxidation. Deliberate planning may lead to ketogenesis, but it should be stressed that *ketogenic acidosis is a matter of available glucose—not alkaline-ash foods*. This type of acidosis is caused by improper balance between the fats and pure carbohydrates both of which are classed as neutral-ash foods. This above all demonstrates the folly of trying to avoid an "acid condition" by securing an excess of alkaline-ash foods over those of acidic ash.

Oralic acid has been discussed elsewhere (p. 137). *In vitro*, this acid on subjection to heat is converted into carbonate. Thus, it may be responsible, as in the case of spinach, for a high alkaline-ash value. This is almost wholly misleading, since there is no guarantee that any of the oxalate will become carbonate in the body. Food oxalates, when absorbed, tend to be eliminated as such in the urine. The amount of *uric acid* which is excreted through the kidneys varies considerably. It depends upon the purin content of the diet, the nature of the non-protein foods ingested, physical activity of the subject, the destruction of uric acid in the body, and renal efficiency. Uric acid excretion on a purin-free diet is augmented temporarily by a high-protein or a carbohydrate-rich diet. A high-fat diet and ketogenesis lead to uric acid retention. Uric acid not only can be synthesized by the body, but also can be destroyed. Proteins and carbohydrate aid, whereas fats hinder its destruction. Addicts have seen fit to attribute great merit to the alkaline-ash diet in aiding the body to combat the "evil effects" of uric acid. It is true that after the eating of vegetables and fruits (especially potatoes, bananas, carrots, melons, strawberries, tomatoes, rhubarb) the urine is not likely to deposit uric acid, whereas after bread and meat meals the urine may precipitate uric acid crystals. This is regarded by some as ample reason for instituting an alkaline-ash diet, but it is only part of the picture (see p. 156).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN URINARY REACTION AND FOOD.

It is assumed that ingestion of certain foods leads to excretion of acid or alkaline urine according to the fundamental chemical nature of those foods. Unfortunately, the relationship is not quite so simple. The urine reaction, for many reasons, may fail to correspond to predictions. Experiments which purport to classify foods on the basis of subsequent urinary response may provide misleading information if the results are attributed solely to the ingesta.

Acid-base Rhythm.—The normal individual experiences a variation in urinary pH such that definite decrease in acidity occurs at some time between 9.00 A.M. and midnight. Most frequently this is seen during the morning and is described as the "alkaline tide." The urine may or may not become actually alkaline. This tide usually is attributed to the ingestion of a meal. Actually, the im-

mediate response to food is more apt to be increased rather than decreased urinary acidity. The determination of urinary pH following meals is of no practical clinical value. Contrary to statements in the literature, the urinary acidity is no gauge of gastric acidity nor is absence of the morning "alkaline tide" evidence of pathology.

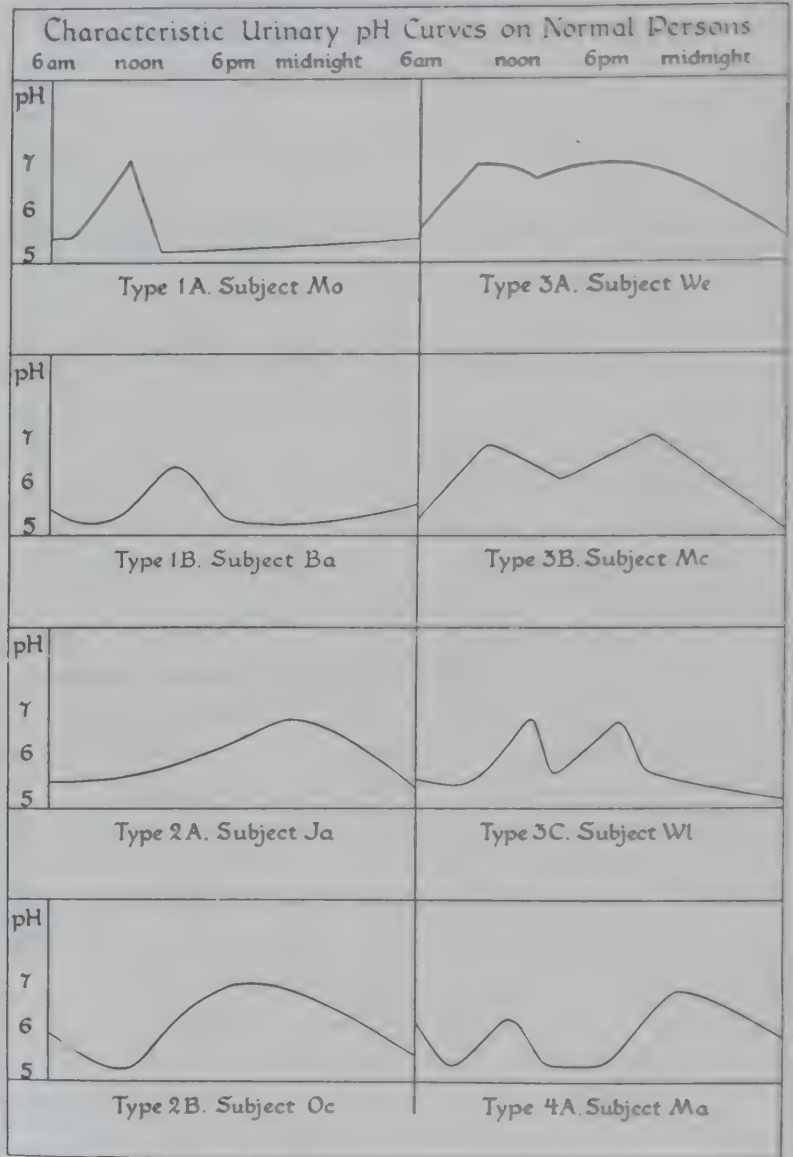


CHART 1.—Typical urinary pH curves representing the fundamental acid-base rhythm of various subjects.

Too frequently the reaction of the urine in nutrition studies is taken on a mixed twenty-four-hour specimen or on single samples collected as much as a week apart. These reveal little about biological processes. The chief characteristic of normal urine is the variability of pH throughout the twenty-four hours. Fixation of pH is as undesirable as fixation of specific gravity. It is often difficult, even impossible to force the urine to remain at a predetermined level whether drugs or food be used. When pathologic processes fix

urinary pH, it is likewise difficult to alter the reaction; an attempt to do so may have serious consequences.

There is ample evidence for the existence of a natural acid-base rhythm (Chart I) which is the resultant of manifold factors. This rhythm tends to manifest itself despite efforts to alter it. If it becomes therapeutically advisable to hold the urine reaction within certain limits, this can be consistently attained only by ascertaining beforehand what the patient's natural trend is. Examination of a group of individuals will reveal that each presents a specific picture. From observed pH curves (8 to 10 specimens per twenty-four hours) it appears likely that some will readily respond to acidification but not alkalization and *vice versa*. Where only 1 or 2 specimens reach pH 6.5, it will usually be comparatively easy to lower these values by acidification measures. Where only 1 or 2 specimens fall below pH 6, it will be comparatively difficult to induce greater acidity, especially with foods. Furthermore, those persons who generally excrete a "morning urine" in the neighborhood of pH 5 are more than apt to continue to do so even though placed upon a strict, alkaline-ash diet. It is probable that alkalinity at this hour will require dosage with sodium bicarbonate at bedtime. Except in the face of demonstrable necessity, such a course is to be condemned. With our present state of knowledge it is conceivable that deliberate alteration of urinary pH may not be in the best interests of the patient.

As has been pointed out by Ziegler and Brice (1937), the human kidney is phylogenetically adapted to excrete an acid urine. Their statistical studies demonstrate that "the ability of the kidney to excrete solids and to concentrate the urine is greater when the urine is acid than when it is alkaline or neutral." According to v. Noorden (1934), a long-standing surplus of bases in the food is an obstacle to the elimination of those products of metabolism normally excreted in the urine.

The body is equipped to handle far more acid and base than is ever encountered dietetically. It is, on the whole, better adapted for the excretion of acid than of base, although the diversion of bicarbonate from its usual path of elimination in the expired air (as CO_2) to excretion by the kidneys (as NaHCO_3) does rid the body of much alkali. It must be stressed, however, that carbonic acid is not a usual urinary constituent and shifting the diet of the normal individual to accomplish this purpose is not entirely rational. Any effort to force elaboration of an alkaline urine is bound to be beset with difficulties. It is impossible to excrete a continuously alkaline urine without resorting to large doses of such agents as sodium bicarbonate (excepting in nephritis with fixation at the turning point of litmus or in urinary infections with persistent ammoniacal fermentation).

Alteration of Urinary Reaction.—The extent of urinary pH change desired, naturally, affects the selection of method for its alteration. There are many instances in the practice of medicine where general disposition or specific complaints can be met with an altered dietary regimen. Those with a predilection for alkaline-ash foods

will derive benefit from acid-producing foods, and *vice versa*. When changes in reaction are contemplated, it should be remembered that forcing fluids tends to raise the urinary pH while withholding water lowers it. If the prescription of an alkaline- or acidic-ash diet is for metabolic purposes only, then no specification as to fluid intake is needed. If, however, the object is alkalization or acidification of the urinary tract, the fluid allowance must be specified.

The ketogenic diet is not well tolerated by the majority who require definite acidification. The use of acidic-ash foods is more effective in the long run. As ordinarily applied, such a diet more infrequently fails to lower the urinary pH below 5.5 which is held to be the upper limit for combating infection. This is due not only to the characteristics of the individual's natural acid-base tide, but also to lack of strictness in arranging the diet.

The absence of salad and cooked greens from the acidic-ash diet may be distressing to the patient. Such greens may be allowed once daily if ample amounts of cranberry, plum or prune juice are taken to the exclusion of other fluids. Lactic acid milk may be substituted for the fruit juices. Ice-cream is permissible on both acidic- and alkaline-ash diets. On any acidification regimen, provision should be made for adequate intake of calcium unless urinary calculi exist. When cheese is tolerated, this item is invaluable; the rennet cheeses are ten times richer in calcium than those produced by acid coagulation. Since the acidic-ash diet is notably deficient in vitamin C, administration of ascorbic acid (50 to 100 mg daily) is advised.

The more common drugs for acidifying urine include sodium acid phosphate (average dose 10 to 30 grains), sodium benzoate (average dose, 15 to 30 grains), ammonium chloride (average dose, 15 grains, in amounts up to 120 grains daily) and ammonium nitrate (dosage as for ammonium chloride). Ammonium or monoethanolamine mandelate (10 to 15 grains in amounts up to 180 grains daily) is employed for acidification and for its bactericidal effect. When used in conjunction with ammonium chloride, 10 grains of the former and 7 grains of the latter are usually given t.i.d. Mandelic acid is without effect unless a concentration of 0.5 per cent is reached in urine of pH 5.3 or less.

Whenever a patient is kept at a low urinary pH for several days, the production of ammonia gradually raises the pH level. Acids previously excreted free are eliminated as the ammonium salts. Once this physiologic adjustment sets in, it would seem logical to discontinue the diet or drugs used to achieve acidification. Usually this takes about five days.

Temporary elevation of urinary pH is most readily accomplished dietetically with cantaloupe. Unlike most of the fruits which are ingested as acid although they give an alkaline ash, cantaloupe is close to neutrality (see p. 738). No other food appears to be capable of raising the pH so promptly to such a high level (7.2 to 7.8), yet its "ash" is not outstanding (7.5 degrees of alkalinity). The cause of this behavior is not evident. Bananas, pears, and apples are also well suited to raising the urinary pH.

The results of four consecutive days of an exceedingly strict alkaline-ash diet are depicted in Chart 2. The usual pH curve is unrecognizable the first day, due largely to cantaloupe at breakfast and lunch. On the second day, when the fruits consisted of banana and pear, the outline of the "natural" curve begins to appear. Cantaloupe at lunch on the third day completely distorts the afternoon portion of the curve, but when this fruit was not eaten until the evening meal on the fourth day, the fundamental curve is readily apparent.

On alkaline-ash diets the withdrawal of cereal products may constitute a hardship in which case two slices of bread may be allowed daily. Where soybean or lima bean flours are available for the preparation of bread substitutes, no such restriction is necessary. Unless contraindicated, an egg should be included every day except where the diet is of short duration.

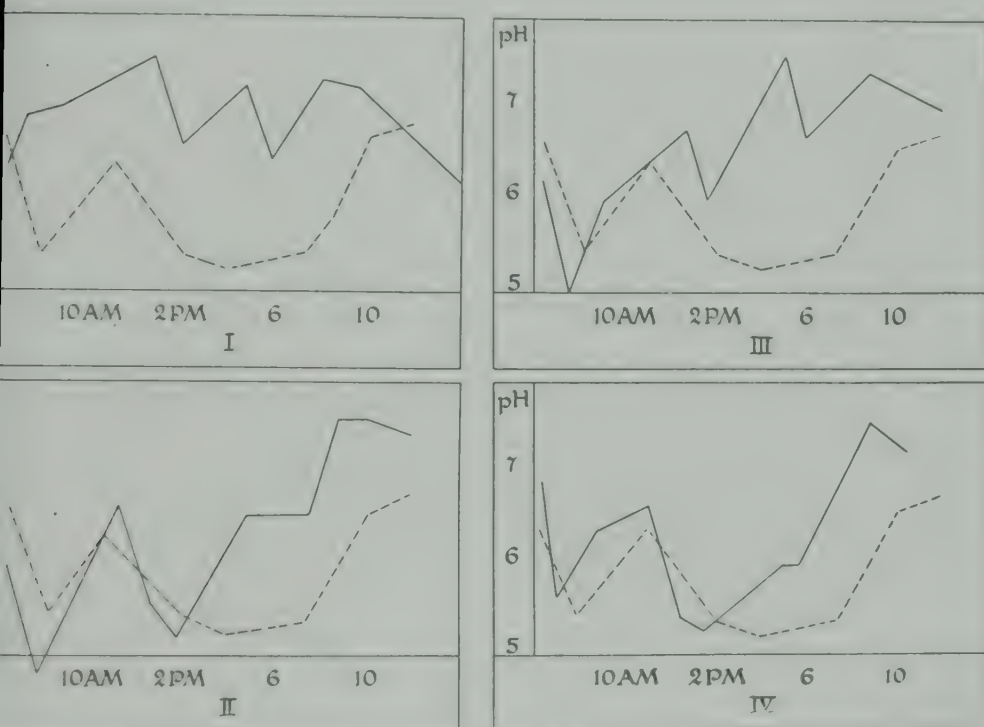


CHART 2.—Urinary pH changes on an alkaline-ash diet. — — — — — average "normal" curve; ——— changes encountered on specified day of diet.

When it is impractical to alter a mixed diet, Shohl's citrate solution may prove useful. This consists of 20 cc. of molar citric acid (10 grams $\text{H}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_7\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ per liter) plus 30 cc. of molar citrate (294 grams $\text{Na}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ per liter). Although the pH of this mixture is not unduly acid, the citrate is so concentrated as to require dilution of five to ten times for ingestion. Milk can be used as a vehicle although water is usually more convenient. As dictated by the natural acid-base tide of the patient and the response to the citrate, this mixture is administered in the amounts needed for alkalization of the urine. In accordance with individual preference it can be taken before, after or during meals.

Alkaline mineral waters shift the urine reaction in proportion to their basic content and the degree of diuresis produced (McClellan and Goldstein, 1938). To maintain continuously alkaline urine 45 grams of sodium bicarbonate may be required daily (Best and Taylor, 1937). Palmer and Henderson employed sodium bicarbonate therapeutically in 4-gram doses three or four times a day preferably between meals, until the urine was slightly alkaline; then it was maintained with a smaller dose, usually not more than 4 grams per day. Alkali sufficient to raise the urine reaction above that of blood should not be permitted lest a well-marked albuminuria develop.

If the urine does not respond promptly to acidification or alkalization measures, these should be discontinued. In the presence of diminishing renal efficiency, it may become impossible for the patient to excrete a markedly acid urine, thus leaving the acidifying agents to accumulate in the blood. On the other hand, some persons with presumably normal kidneys cannot readily rid the body of excess base. Alkalinization procedures then lead to alkalosis and, at times, some degree of renal impairment.

In restricting water for the sake of concentrating the urine, it is not advisable to deprive the body of necessary fluids. The patient should not be allowed to develop a real thirst. Although a highly acid, concentrated urine is inimical to bacterial growth, occasions may arise where ample flushing of the urinary tract is more desirable. It is suggested that this be achieved by free ingestion of cranberry and prune juices so long as no gastro-intestinal disturbance ensues. Although the ingestion of small amounts of grape juice is associated with increased urinary alkalinity, the drinking of large quantities may result in diuresis with low pH. Grape juice, therefore, may be offered whenever the patient refuses the cranberry or prune juice. Unless accustomed to the "burnt" taste of commercial prune juice, the patient is apt to find it objectionable; when prepared in the kitchen, the flavor is superior and the fluid usually is acceptable.

Purpose of Acidic or Alkaline-ash Diets.—Change in the reaction of the urine may be sought to benefit local conditions in the urinary tract (as infections or calculus formation), to provide "evidence" of readjusted metabolism and "normalization" of body processes (a fertile field for faddists), and to afford a means of gauging response to the therapy of diseases. There is no widespread agreement on any of these points, interpretation of experimental data, such as it is, being subject to no end of assumptions. The broadcasting of ill-substantiated opinions and hasty conclusions as well as sound fact have confused both the lay and professional point of view.

To quote from Mason and Hellbaum* (1938): "Many physicians make a routine practice of prescribing alkalies, and also alkali diet, in the treatment of *nephritis*. They usually do so with no better reason than 'if it does not benefit the patient, it can at least do no harm.' Also the general public has been 'sold' on the idea that all human ills result from a 'too acid' condition, and the panacea is

* *Ann. Internal Med.*, 11, 2206

li. Berger and Binger have observed impaired renal function accompanying alkalosis, resulting from the alkaline treatment of gastric ulcer. Steele has also observed that renal damage may occur in the alkaline ulcer treatment before clinical symptoms of alkalosis appear . . . Ziegler and Brice warned against the indiscriminate use of alkalis, as "alkalinization of the urine may defeat the purpose, which is elimination of solids." Acid urines show fewer abnormal findings than those which are alkaline or neutral. Many find the acid type of therapy superior to the alkaline in managing nephritis. Lashmet's (1931) treatment of nephritic edema consists essentially of a low-protein, salt-poor, neutral-ash diet in conjunction with acid-producing salts and forced fluids. However, the diet in nephritis invariably needs to be adjusted to the capacity of the kidneys for handling waste products.

Alkalinization should be attempted only with definite justification. Where extreme acidity is accompanied by frequency and discomfort, relief may be expected by inducing reactions close to neutrality. There is no merit in achieving a continuously alkaline urine. It is of no benefit to the kidneys—rather the reverse. Segnitz has demonstrated that the formation of neutral urine is associated with secreting cells of similar reaction; acid or alkaline urine, however, is accompanied by intracellular changes of opposite reaction. Alkalinization of urine, therefore, causes increasing acidity in the renal cells. Acidity is observed in damaged kidney tissue and alkalinization of nephritic animals does not reverse the cellular acidity.

Paradoxically, **diuresis** may follow either acid or alkali therapy. Segnitz has offered an explanation based on experimental observations. Reversal of intracellular reaction may produce physiologic diuresis and thus renal diuresis by insult attributable to alkali. On the other hand, diuresis associated with the use of acids in nephritis probably results from some measure of physiologic neutralization of the renal secreting cells, thus improving their functional efficiency. An acidic diet is dehydrating whereas marked and sudden gain in weight follows the administration of sodium bicarbonate. Not only edema but also in epilepsy and in **obesity** may advantage of this be taken. Subcaloric diets do not always lead to the expected loss in weight. Prompt elimination of water and consequent weight reduction are encountered with acid formation and a low-salt intake.

The So-called Acid-Ash Acidosis.—Ingestion of foodstuffs has never produced sustained changes outside the normal limits of the plasma pH or bicarbonate of human beings. Biscoff, Sansum *et al.* (1934) found no significant difference in the acid-base picture of normal individuals fed exclusively acid or excessively alkaline foodstuffs. The daily administration of 45 grams of sodium bicarbonate or 15 to 20 grams of ammonium chloride is needed to raise or lower the plasma pH by 0.2 (Haldane, 1921). To accomplish this same effect by food, 18 pounds of oranges would be required in the diet one time for the shift toward alkalinity and 4½ pounds of lean beef for the shift toward acidity produced by the specified drugs.

(citations from Tobey, 1936). Daily ingestion of 2.5 grams of phosphoric acid (equivalent to 1 pound of lean beef) for six weeks has not been found to disturb the acid-base equilibrium (Michalowsky, 1930). *The American Public Year Book* for 1935-1936 (p. 6) states very flatly that "there is no evidence that a preponderant acid diet is injurious."

Alkalinization for Transfusion.—Hemoglobinuria subsequent to transfusion was found by McGowin *et al.* (1937) to be associated with renal impairment in dogs due to blockage of the tubular lumen with masses of pigment although the transfused blood was compatible. Partial or complete urine suppression occurred on acid diets, but so long as the urine was alkaline intravenous injection of large amounts of dog hemoglobin appeared to be innocuous. If these observations can be applied to human subjects, it would be logical to use alkalinizing measures as a prophylactic prior to transfusion.

Acid versus Alkaline Starches in Dental Nutrition.—The Hawaiian investigations of Jones, Larsen, and Pritchard are of extraordinary interest in relation to the development of sound teeth and fine physique. Quoting from their 1934 report:* "The Polynesians throughout the Pacific area have from time immemorial been large consumers of carbohydrate foods—roots and tubers. It is estimated that from 60 to 75 per cent of the calories of the diet of the old Hawaiians were in the form of taro root and sweet potato. Fish furnished the protein of their diet. They did not use milk, beef or grains. Their diet was not only rich in carbohydrate, but soft and pappy in consistency; yet throughout the centuries these people maintained their fine physiques, broad dental arches and freedom from tooth decay. The introduction of grain foods in the tropics and their substitution for roots and tubers have been accompanied by an increase in the incidence of respiratory and blood-vessel diseases. In spite of their splendid heritage, the teeth of Hawaiian babies of today are often ravaged by decay before they completely erupt. The *type* of carbohydrate in the diet, rather than amount, appears to be the important factor in maintaining sound teeth in Hawaii."

"Honolulu has enjoyed daily for the past twenty-five years an average of seven and one-half hours of tropical sunshine, the richest known source of vitamin D; yet during that time the incidence of dental decay has increased rapidly. Eggs, which are also rich in vitamin D, are a common article of food today. Cod-liver oil was used systematically in the baby clinics, kindergartens and schools for years without any detectable beneficial effect upon the teeth of the children. The conclusion is inevitable that vitamin D in large amounts under conditions existing in Hawaii does not prevent or arrest dental decay."

"The different effects of various types of foods on man in different parts of the world are due, we believe, to differences in food requirements which are to a great extent determined by climate and activity, as well as age and systemic condition. The human race subsists

* Dental Cosmos, 76, 395, 1934.

ly on carbohydrate foods—roots, tubers and grains. As has pointed out, roots and tubers are indigenous in the tropics and in foods in the temperate zones. Though they are generally regarded as interchangeable as sources of carbohydrate, they should not be, because roots and tubers act as an alkali when they are used in the human body, and are needed, apparently, to balance the physiologic effect of a warm climate. Grains, on the other hand, contain an excess of acid elements which are well tolerated in cold climates, but in the tropics create an imbalance in the systemic complex toward the acid side. Neither grain foods nor potatoes grow in the arctics, and man thrives best in the extreme and habitual cold when he subsists on flesh foods. The introduction of grain foods into the arctics and tropics has been associated with physical deterioration of the people, an increase in the susceptibility to diseases of all kinds and increase in the incidence of dental decay."

There are large regions throughout the temperate zones where grain foods have from time immemorial been the principal carbohydrate food—the 'staff of life'—of millions of people. In cold and high districts the vitamin D content of the diet is probably low, as in Russia and North China, where wheat grows luxuriantly and constitutes the principal food of the people. Those who subsist on native foods are said to be physically strong and their teeth free from decay. The association of dental decay with grain foods the world over may be due, not to a fault, as such, in the grains, but to their excessive use out of their natural habitat."

Therapy for Nephrolithiasis.—No subject is more complicated by controversial opinion than the treatment of renal lithiasis. Dietary deficiency, bacterial infection, and metabolic imbalance all have been assigned an etiologic rôle. In any event, the diet holds a conspicuous place in the therapeutic regimen. Much emphasis has been placed on urinary acidity or alkalinity. Restriction is imposed on the offending "element" as revealed in analysis of the calculi. It is believed that by juggling various urinary constituents recurrence of the stone can be avoided.

Urinary solubility, unfortunately, is but vaguely understood. Certain facts regarding the colloid stabilizers are brought out by Clark and Toenhart (1937). These little known substances, said to occur in amounts varying from 0.2 to 0.8 gram per liter, can be precipitated, heated, or gently evaporated without alteration of their properties. Temperature does not affect the solubility of crystals in urine to the same extent it does in ordinary solutions. Protein and carbohydrate stimulate colloid excretion whereas fat does not. Fasting increases the urinary colloids and more is excreted during the day than at night. Solubility also depends on the presence of many salts and organic substances, as urea, and on the degree of acidity. Obviously, urine is not a simple aqueous solution to which the terms "saturated" and "supersaturated" can readily be applied.

Uric acid requires in excess of 16 liters of water at body temperature to dissolve 1 gram. The sodium and ammonium salts are

somewhat more soluble. Yet the kidneys may eliminate as much as 2 grams of uric acid without precipitation in a volume less than 1 liter. Presumably it is either present as a colloid or is stabilized by certain colloids. The stability of colloiddally protected uric acid has a sharp optimum between pH 5.5 and 7 (Schade). Within these limits urates may "stubbornly remain in solution." On the other hand, much smaller quantities of urates may fail to be excreted without precipitation, the pH of the urine not accounting for this phenomenon. The missing factor may or may not be one of the urinary colloids.

One of the reasons commonly advanced for embracing an alkaline ash diet is the possibility of precipitating uric acid with the supposed attendant danger of calculus formation. If avoidance of urinary sediment is a worthy aim, then increasing alkalinity or diminishing acidity will hardly achieve that end. *An effective alkaline-ash diet is an excellent means of being sure that the voided urine will not be clear.* Rarely is alkaline urine clear; not infrequently it is heavy with sediment. On the other hand, the majority of acid urines are clear when voided. If an acid urine is extraordinarily conducive to uric acid precipitation, evidence should be easily obtainable. Tabulation of 1000 routine urinalyses submitted during the course of a month at the New York Post-Graduate Hospital revealed 730 which were acid in reaction. Of these, only 17, or 2.3 per cent, showed a deposit of uric acid. On a vegetable and fruit diet, the neutral or alkaline urine which reaches the bladder is already turbid with precipitated phosphates. There is no reason for believing that a phosphate sediment is any less harmful than a lateritious deposit, especially since the most intractable stones are phosphatic.

Out of 201 urinary calculi analyzed by the author only 31, or 15.4 per cent, contained uric acid. Calcium oxalate was encountered in 52 per cent of the stones. In over one-half of the oxalate uroliths phosphate was present in considerable quantity. In 163, or 81 per cent, of these calculi phosphate occurred in appreciable amount. Our experience confirms the opinion of Joly that oxalates or phosphates predominate in the majority of stones.

Oxalic Acid.—From the foregoing it can be seen that urinary oxalates cannot be ignored. Although it would be simple to tabulate the occurrence of calcium oxalate crystals as has been done with uric acid, it is believed that any such data would be misleading. It is a matter of common observation that calcium oxalate sediments will appear in the urine of nearly every patient in a ward after ingesting oxalate-rich food, as spinach or rhubarb. This never happens with uric acid, but may do so with phosphates. Statistical treatment of microscopic urinary findings, then, would merely reflect the diet in the case of oxalate and, to some extent, phosphates. Both are very common urinary sediments. That they should occur frequently in calculi is not surprising. The point to be stressed here is that alkalinizing diets lead to phosphate precipitation. If a tendency to stone formation exists, turbidity is most unwelcome.

is not possible for the kidneys to excrete urine acid enough to dis-calcium oxalate, crystals of which may appear in alkaline, neutral or acid urine. Although persons who have passed oxalate stones can be placed upon an oxalate-low diet, the urine frequently continues to show oxalate crystals. It is probable that calcium, rather than oxalate, is the offending agent. In some instances, patients exhibit a high serum calcium (12 to 14 mg. per cent) and excrete unduly large quantities of calcium through the kidneys, which is usually exaggerated by acidifying measures or increased availability of vitamin D. In the opinion of Flocks (1939) when on an acidic-ash diet, moderate doses of vitamin D or heliotherapy do not inhibit excessive urinary calcium excretion, these agents should not be employed in the treatment of patients with calcium urolithiasis. The acidic-ash diet is safe only for those who excrete normal amounts of calcium and in whom urinary stasis does not exist. Albright and Flocks have observed that increased elimination of water through the kidneys is not accompanied by additional loss of calcium. The calcium concentration (and phosphorus concentration) may be satisfactorily diminished, therefore, by amplifying the water intake.

The three main types of primary metabolic stones are cystine, uric acid, and calcium.* In the presence of a foreign body or infection involving ammoniacal fermentation, magnesium ammonium phosphate predominates. In none of these is the "ash" of the diet a determining factor. Attempts to impose a strict acidic-ash diet on patients with a phosphate infection has too often resulted only in making the individual thoroughly miserable without demonstrably affecting the urinary pH. Except where it is possible to follow the patient closely with biochemical supervision, prescription of acidic- or alkaline-ash diets for nephrolithiasis should be discouraged. Since the normal urinary tract is accustomed to being irrigated by a fluid of varying pH, adherence to any diet which will diminish the variation would seem to be undesirable except in the presence of demonstrable need.

SUMMARY.

Acidity, when applied to food, is subject to some confusion. Since there are two points of view (alimentary and urinary), the same food may be classed as either alkaline or acid. Naturally, the food itself cannot have but one reaction. With disintegration in the intestinal tract, some alteration occurs but the major change awaits those processes concerned with the building up and breaking down of body tissues. The end-products of the metabolism of any food which has been reduced to the status of a chemically pure compound are acidic substances which are acidic, basic, and neutral. Predominance of one or the other results in classification of the food as alkaline or acid as the case may be, this representing the anticipated

The stones associated with hyperparathyroidism have been reported as consisting of calcium phosphate or carbonate. In this condition we have repeatedly encountered calcium phosphate and oxalate. It is the calcium which is significant.

effect on urine reaction. Neither digestion nor metabolism, however, proceed at such a rate that there is any guarantee that the acids by one route and the bases by another will arrive at the kidneys in time to exert the effect calculated from the composition of the food. It has been regarded as good nutritional form to "balance" the daily diet sheet in three or more meals. As long ago as 1919, Sherman and Gettler demonstrated that such balancing could not be carried from one meal to another; that is, precisely the same foods gave different urine results when served in different combinations for breakfast and lunch. Although Sherman in 1936 still questioned the merit of balancing acid-forming and base-forming foods, the less well-informed do not hesitate to prescribe diets of specific ash for a multitude of ailments. Far too much emphasis has been placed on the character of the dietary residue with the result that more important considerations have gone unnoted.

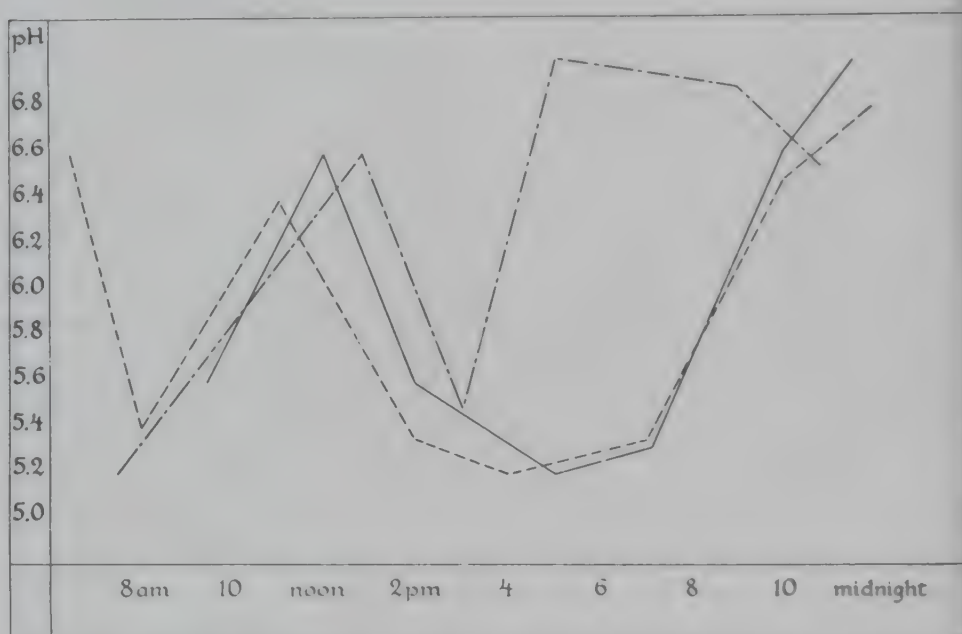


CHART 3.—Urinary pH changes after ingesting one cup of stewed rhubarb. ----- average "normal" curve; ——— after taking rhubarb at 10 A.M.; — · — after taking rhubarb at 3 P.M.

It has been pointed out that urine reaction is the result of many factors simultaneously in operation. The kidneys respond to certain foods very quickly, yet it is not easy to determine the precise effect of food upon the reaction of the urine since it is not always the same. According to the results presented in Chart 3 ingestion of rhubarb in the morning has little influence on the urinary pH, but in the afternoon considerable effect. The difference is not in the rhubarb, but in the variety of factors which determine the natural trend of subject's acid-base tide.

Chart 4 demonstrates the type of response to a strictly acidic-ash lunch in which the only fluid permitted was 90 cc. of cranberry juice, one of the most effective means of lowering urinary pH. The purpose was to obtain an exaggerated response, if possible, by avoiding any upward trend attributable to output of fluid. For a similar

on ingestion of extra fluid was encouraged in the evening to assist alkalization of the urine due to the character of the diet. With 3 of the subjects sharp depression of the pH is seen in the early afternoon, followed by prompt recovery. Subject B, however, shows less acidity but prolongs the depression into the evening. There is no apparent effect of the alkaline-ash supper in subject.

strict diet, whatever its specification, usually is too much bother to be adhered to for long. As a consequence, the "ash" diets have been modified to such an extent that they have little claim to their original specification. The Higgins' régime, for example, while described as acid or alkaline-ash is a well-rounded diet in which foods are selected to tip the balance either a little to the acid or alkaline side. Unfortunately, the data employed for figuring out the diet rest upon a poor foundation.

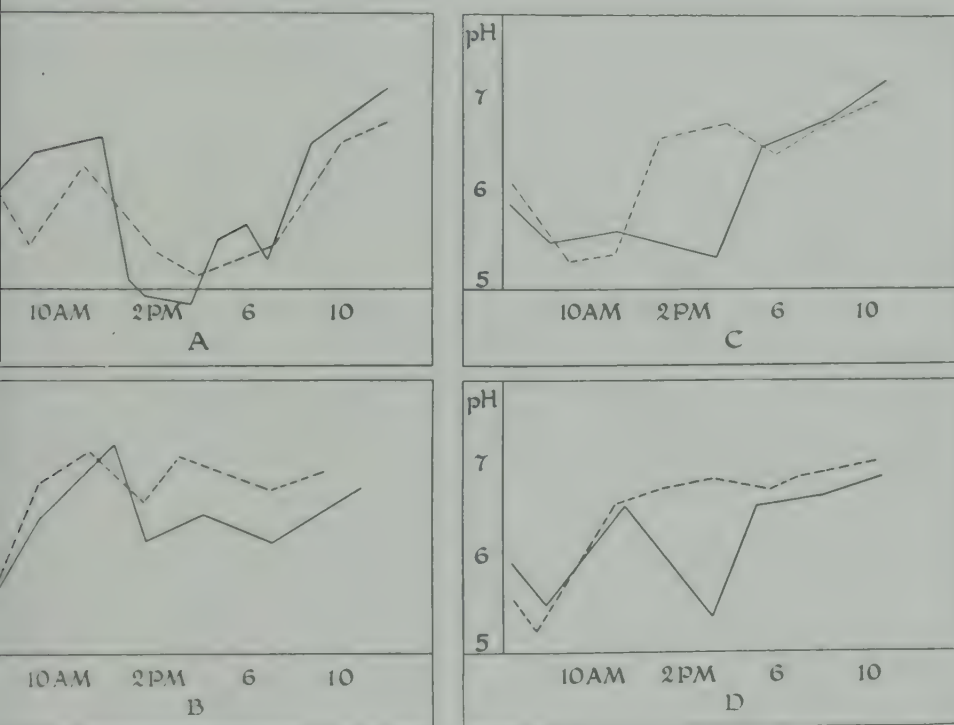


FIG. 4.—Urinary pH changes with acidic-ash lunch followed by alkaline-ash dinner. ——— average "normal" curve; ——— response under test conditions.

For metabolic purposes the diet should be "balanced" with reference to protein, carbohydrate, fat, minerals, vitamins and water; there is no need for considering the ash left by such a diet. On the other hand, if it is desirable to alter the urine reaction, the procedure is far less simple. In the vast majority of cases where the urinary reaction is seriously in error, means have yet to be devised for changing it. Deliberate alteration of urine reaction should not be sought as an end in itself. If abnormal fixation exists, there must be a reason for it. Upon this reason attention should be focussed rather than upon the reaction *per se*.

SECTION VI.

PRACTICAL EVALUATION OF FOODS.

RUTH E. LLOYD, B.S., M.A.

Introduction.—There are various factors which influence the selection of food. Age, sex, climate, activity, race and religion as well as health and personality all contribute to the total picture.

It is interesting to note the importance of custom in an individual's food habits. Some are good habits with good reasons behind them. Studies which have been made show the remarkable persistence of the food preferences of earlier generations. Perhaps we should remember in considering a nutritional policy, to modify food customs only in so far as it is absolutely necessary to do so in order to provide the nutrients essential for health and efficiency. Also, if we are to achieve a steady progress we must not be swayed by passing fads and fancies.

Building good dietary habits then becomes a problem of continuous education. Individuals and groups must be awakened to a consciousness of the part that good nutrition plays in building and maintaining health.

CHEMICAL EVALUATION OF FOODS

Research has proven that it is impossible to calculate a diet on a strictly scientific basis because of the great variance in foods. Not only do foods vary in their content of nutrients but individuals also differ in their utilization of these foods. Factors as climate, soil, sunshine, degree of maturity, harvesting, handling, storage and the actual preparation of the food all affect the final values.

Charts of food values are compiled after careful study over a period of years. They represent the efforts of many investigators and the best average of numerous determinations.

This specific information is necessary to assist the doctor, nurse and dietitian in planning and checking the adequacy of diets.

The tables which show the composition of foods form the basis for all dietary calculations, but in their use there should be a recognition of their limitations.

Classification of Fruits and Vegetables.—For the systematic planning of any dietary, a classification of fruits and vegetables is necessary. Intelligent dietetic management requires the use of tables that will provide basic data and consist of representative average values. As the result of differences in the varied groupings of fruits and vegetables there is confusion in the selection of these values.

The degree of ripeness of fruits makes a difference in the sugar content since the riper they are, the more glucose there is contained in them. Also, fruits and vegetables which have been stored in warehouses and have dried out will test differently in any analysis.

the use of standardized tables makes for simplification in dieting and use by patients. We cannot hold to "pen point" accuracy since the utilization of a food will vary anyway with the individual consuming it.

The clinician will find it helpful to use tables which do not confuse the patient with a complication of figures. Consideration should always be given to the importance of simple directions and often listing of fruits and vegetables as to groups will prove entirely adequate.

The tables of proximate composition of fruits and vegetables as issued by the U. S. Dept. of Agriculture are widely used as a standard reference.

VEGETABLES

GROUP I.

3 per cent Carbohydrate.
2.0 per cent Protein.
0.3 per cent Fat.

Asparagus, fresh and	Lettuce
Beet, green	Mustard green
Broccoli shoots	Okra, canned
Cauliflower, green and wax	Poke shoots
Chard, greens	Purslane
Chicory	Radishes
Cabbage	Romaine
Cabbage, chinese	Sauerkraut, fresh and
Cornflower	canned
Cress	Sea Kale
Endive	Sorrel
Green leaves	Spinach, fresh and
Green beans	canned
Kale	Squash, summer
Leek	Tomatoes, fresh and
Lentils	canned
Onion	Tomato juice, fresh and
Pea	canned
Potato	Turnip tops
Spinach	Watercress

GROUP II.

6 per cent Carbohydrate.
2.0 per cent Protein.
0.3 per cent Fat.

Beans, scarlet runner
Beans, snap
Chives
Collards
Dandelion greens
Eggplant
Kale
Kohlrabi
Lambs quarters
Leeks
Okra
Peppers, green and red
Pumpkin, fresh and
canned
Squash, winter
Turnips

GROUP III.

10 per cent Carbohydrate.
5 per cent Protein.
0.3 per cent Fat.

Artichokes, globe or
Brussels sprouts
Cauliflower, fresh and
canned
Green beans
Peas, very young,
fresh and canned
Tabagias

GROUP IV.

12 per cent Carbohydrate.

‡Beans, lima,
canned

GROUP V.

15 per cent Carbohydrate.
2.5 per cent Protein.

0.3 per cent Fat.
Jerusalem artichoke, tuber
Parsnips
‡Peas, mature
Salsify
Vegetable oyster

GROUP VI.

18 per cent Carbohydrate.
2.5 per cent Protein.

0.3 per cent Fat.
‡Beans, baked
Corn
Potatoes, Irish

This vegetable contains a higher protein content than that listed for the group in the food tables.

FRUITS

GROUP I.	GROUP II.	GROUP III.	GROUP IV.
3 per cent Carbo- hydrate.	6 per cent Carbo- hydrate.	9 per cent Carbo- hydrate.	12 per cent Carbo- hydrate.
0.7 per cent Protein.	0.7 per cent Protein.	0.7 per cent Protein.	0.7 per cent Protein.
0.3 per cent Fat.	0.3 per cent Fat.	0.3 per cent Fat.	0.3 per cent Fat.
Rhubarb, fresh and canned, w. p.	Blackberries, canned w. p.	Applesauce, canned, w. p.	Apple juice
Strawberries, canned, w. p.	Blackberry juice	Apricots, canned, w. p.	Apricots
	Gooseberries, canned, w. p.	Blackberries	Cherries, sour
	Peaches, canned, w. p.	Cherries, red, white, canned, w. p.	Grapes, canned, w. p.
	Plums, canned, w. p.	Cranberries	Guavas
	Strawberries	Currants	Mulberries
	Strawberry juice	Gooseberries	Oranges
	Watermelon	Grapefruit, fresh and canned, w. p.	Orange juice
		Lemons	Peaches
		Lemon juice	Pineapple, fresh, canned, w. p.
		Limes	Plums
		Lime juice	Raspberries
		Loganberries, canned, W. p.	
		Loganberry juice	
		Pears, canned, w. p.	
		Raspberries, canned, w. p.	
		Tangerines	
GROUP V.	GROUP VI.		
15 per cent Carbo- hydrate.	18 per cent Carbo- hydrate.		
0.7 per cent Protein.	0.7 per cent Protein.		
0.3 per cent Fat.	0.3 per cent Fat.		
Apples	Cherries, sweet		
Blueberries, fresh and canned, w. p.	Crab apples		
Blueberry juice	Figs		
Figs, canned, w. p.	Grapejuice, un- sweetened		
Grapes	Persimmons, Jap- anese		
Nectarines	Pomegranates		
Pears			

*Canned fruits included here are all water packed products. Other fruits listed are fresh.

Classification of Flesh Foods.—Meat ranks high in essential food nutrients and because of its aroma and flavor it has universal appetite appeal. The protein and fat content of meat varies with the cut and kind. The following general classification of muscle meats has been compiled from the figures of the U. S. Dept. of Agriculture Bulletin No. 572, 1945.

COMPOSITION OF MEATS

100 gram portions, raw	Protein grams	Fat grams	Carbohydrate grams	Food energy calories
Beef, lean	18.8	14.0		201
Ham smoked	16.9	35.0	0.3	384
Lamb, medium	18.0	17.5		230
Pork, lean	14.1	35.0		371
Veal, medium	19.1	12.0		184

Chatfield (1937) suggested a basis of comparison under two headings: relative fatness and relative dryness.

TABLE 15.—Classification of Meats.

	Fat. per cent.	Protein, per cent.
Lean meat:		
Dry (very well done)	6	34
Medium done	6	30
Moist (rare)	6	27
Medium fat:		
Dry	18	30
Medium done	18	27
Moist	18	23
Fat, medium done	30	22
Very fat, medium done	45	17

The classification of fish is considerably more difficult because of the rather wide variability in the fat content. Fish can be considered an ideal source of proteins for convalescent diets. The proteins of fish contain all the amino acids suitable for the nutrition of man. The food value is as follows:

Composition of Fish

100 gram portions, raw	Protein grams	Fat grams	Carbohydrate grams	Food energy calories
fish	20.5	4.0		118
, miscellaneous,	16.5	0.4		70
medium fat	19.0	2.5		98
dock	17.2	0.3		72
but	18.6	5.2		121

Effect of Cooking Upon Foods.—No matter how carefully cooking is performed, a certain amount of loss of soluble constituents is almost unavoidable.

Studies are being conducted as to the extent to which cooking alters the nutritive value of foods and more information on the results of analyses of cooked foods will become increasingly available.

Cooking of vegetables leads to a reduction of carbohydrate by an amount determined by the structure of the food, the method of cooking, the quantity of water used, the size of the pieces and the length of time heat is applied. In general, there is a decrease of one-third to one-half of the carbohydrate after cooking in water, the portion lost being largely of utilizable nature. Ordinary cooking of vegetables removes about 5 per cent of the proteins, while the loss of fats is relatively slight. The analyses of cooked and uncooked foods will show marked differences when the water content changes appreciably. Cooking under steam pressure is increasing in popularity. By this method a maximum amount of color and vitamins and minerals is retained.

The change in weight of meat during cooking is due chiefly to the loss of water, although in the case of certain meats, as bacon, it is caused by the removal of fats. Even in par-boiling, the water content diminishes. Boiling or steaming results in less removal of water due to volatilization; 3 to 20 per cent of the total solids may be found in meat broth. The loss of water and minerals is

such that the percentage of salts remains the same in raw, boiled and steamed meat, but is higher in roasted meat. According to British investigators, beef, when fully cooked, loses the same amount of weight, water and salts whether cooking is commenced in hot or cold water. Experimental work has proven that boiling causes meat to become stringy due to the fact that it dissolves rather than softens the connective tissue and that searing really increases the cooking losses. Meat cooked by dry heat methods as roasting and broiling shows a greater retention of B vitamins than meat cooked in water. Ground beef free from visible fat shows changes in composition as follows:

	Water, per cent.	Protein, per cent.	Fat, per cent.	Ash, per cent.
Uncooked	75.2	21.2	2.5	1.2
Pan-broiled	61.7	33.4	3.9	1.6

TABLE 16.—Effect of Cooking Upon Composition of Meats.

Food.	Mode of cooking.	Percentage loss of weight.	Percentage distribution of total loss.			
			Protein.	Fat.	Salts.	Water
Bacon, very fat	Fried	61.7	0.4	52.5	1.2	45.9
Beef, 50-gram pieces	Boiled 1 hour	43.0	4.8	6.1	2.0	87.1
Beef, 1600 grams	Boiled	39.8	4.2	8.0	1.3	86.5
Beef, 1600 grams	Roasted	39.2	2.0	10.0	0.5	87.5
Catfish	Steamed	33.4	3.1	0.3	1.0	95.6
Cod	Steamed	31.5	4.7	0.8	1.0	93.5
Mutton, lean	Boiled	42.0	4.4	3.1	1.2	91.3
Mutton, very fat	Boiled	38.0	2.7	35.0	0.8	61.5

Pound for pound, overcooked meat contains more protein and probably more fat than undercooked. Investigation of nutritive values of canned meats and fish generally reveals a marked similarity to ordinary cooked foods.

If pan drippings are served with the meat or used in making gravies or soup, the protein, fat and salts and a large part of the vitamin content will be conserved. From the data shown in Table 17 it is apparent that "the amount of protein in the rib cut, greatly increased due to fat and water losses in cooking, becomes comparable with that of the lean, cooked top round ordinarily regarded as a more abundant source of protein."

TABLE 17.—Effect of Roasting on Composition of Paired Cuts of Steer Beef.*

Cut.	Official U. S. grade.	Preparation.	Fat, per cent.	Protein, per cent.	Total solids, per cent.	Moisture, per cent.	Total ash, per cent.	Calcium, per cent.	Phosphorus, per cent.	Iron, per cent.
Clod	Good	Uncooked	18.2	21.1	41.2	58.8	0.964	0.012	0.156	0.0028
		Roasted	22.0	25.3	52.8	47.2	1.060	0.006	0.211	0.0028
Ribs	Good	Uncooked	31.0	19.8	51.8	48.3	0.812	0.009	0.136	0.0048
		Roasted	32.6	31.9	64.9	35.1	1.065	0.008	0.199	0.0048
Top round	Good	Uncooked	6.6	24.1	31.9	68.1	1.162	0.005	0.200	0.0022
		Roasted	9.0	30.6	39.3	60.7	1.117	0.011	0.214	0.0022

* Rogers, M., Gillum, I., Kuerth, B. L., and Pittman, M. S.: Jour. Am. Dietet. Assn., 13, 320, 1937.

Some difficulty may be encountered in estimating the caloric value of meats, as most of the analyses reported in the table are for raw meat. The mode of cooking and serving may reduce the heat value by as much as 50 per cent. Sherman advocates estimating the meat with the protein content shown by the average of all analyses and the caloric value indicated for the lean cuts.

Grading of Foods.—Classification of food according to quality is commonly practised by dealers without the consumer being conversant with the codes used. Price is not necessarily an index of quality.

The vogue for *white eggs* in place of brown eggs is merely commercial exploitation of the notion that the white eggs are superior particularly for invalids and children. The color of the shell is of little significance since investigation has proved that there is no chemical difference between the two. The New York public prefers white eggs while the Boston consumer will use only the brown shelled egg.

There is a mistaken idea among the laity and among some of the medical profession that the difference between *Grade A* and *Grade B* milk depends upon the concentration of butter-fat. The legal requirements are such that both grades of milk have the same fat content. Differentiation is based upon the bacterial count, high-quality milk having a low bacterial rating.

In the canning of fruits, fancy grades consist of uniformly perfect fruit in the best state of ripeness and of the largest size. The fruit is packed in a thick syrup. Cans of choice grade fruit contain nearly perfect fruit of average size in a medium syrup. Standard grade uses smaller, less uniform fruit in a medium syrup. Vegetables are also graded as to fancy, choice and standard.

NUTRITIONAL EVALUATION OF FOODS.

Unfortunately data furnished by chemical examination even of small portions of the food ingested usually are not sufficient to warrant conclusions regarding the physiologic fate of the various elements. The chemical concentrations of foodstuffs do not necessarily represent the available chemical content.

Utilization of Nitrogenous Compounds.—The standard method of ascertaining the protein content of a food consists of conversion of the nitrogenous compounds into ammonia. It is assumed that

$$\text{Food nitrogen} \times 6.25 = \text{protein.}$$

This may be erroneous: (1) Because the factor varies with the protein under analysis (for milk protein the proper factor is 6.37); (2) because foods contain non-protein nitrogen for which no allowance is made. The latter may consist of amino-acids and other hydrolysis products of proteins. With our present knowledge, it is impossible to determine whether the non-protein nitrogen is of no nutritive value whatever, or is as good as the protein nitrogen. Experiments by Peters and Van Slyke show that 15 to 20 per cent of the nitrogen of common foods exists in non-protein form; some

vegetables rate even higher. Ninety-four per cent of the total nitrogen of cow's milk is protein, for which the proper factor is 6.37.

Milk, meat, and eggs provide protein which has a coefficient of digestion of almost 98 per cent, that is, these proteins are in a form such that practically complete digestion is possible. Ninety-two to 95 per cent of the proteins of cheese are digestible when the concentrated character of this food is recognized and it is eaten with discretion.

Vegetables, on the whole, contain less available protein than other foods. Eighty per cent of the protein of fruits are digestible (the coefficient for fat is 97 per cent, for carbohydrate 95 per cent). The coefficient of digestibility for bread made from various flours is presented in Table 18.

TABLE 18.—Comparative Utilization of Foodstuffs in Bread.

Type of flour used in bread.	Coefficient of digestibility.	
	Protein.	Carbohydrate.
White	88.6	97.7
Entire wheat	82.0	93.5
Graham	74.9	89.2
Whole rye	65.0	

Although toasting renders the carbohydrate of bread more digestible by conversion of a portion of the starch into dextrin, the protein becomes less soluble and presumably less readily attacked by the digestive juices.

Availability of Carbohydrates.—Carbohydrates most frequently are calculated "by difference" after direct determination of fats, proteins ($N \times 6.25$), ash, water, and sometimes crude fiber. The combined errors of analysis thus fall upon the carbohydrate figure. Other methods of analysis employ direct hydrolysis with mineral acid or enzymes followed by copper reduction or polariscopic examination. Such figures more nearly approximate the utilizable carbohydrates in the food, but not all reducing sugars can be metabolized by the body. Many of the organic acids, as malic, tartaric, and citric, are classed as carbohydrates. These acids are oxidized to CO_2 and water, thus providing energy.

Raw starch is very slowly digested. Potato, arrowroot, tapioca and sago starches are not made more digestible by long cooking. Cereal starches, on the other hand, show increased digestibility after protracted cooking. Packaged cereals have usually been partially pressure-cooked by steam, hence the many hours of cooking once necessary are not required. It is best, however, to allow more time than the directions on the package indicate. Starch which is imprisoned within cellulose escapes digestion. Two foods of identical starch content may thus provide the body with widely varying amounts of sugar on digestion due to the presence or absence of plant fiber. Analyses of foods which include fiber under carbohydrate may be wholly misleading as to caloric value.

Raw foods which have enjoyed popular favor in faddist diets provide the body with less nutriment than when properly cooked.

The preparation of fruits and vegetables for ingestion in the raw state is necessarily more exacting, since the food will not be subjected to sterilization by heat. Softening of fiber by cooking with subsequent reduction of intestinal irritation, together with the other advantage of greater safety, may often outweigh any benefit that can be derived from vitamin or enzyme obtainable in raw foods. Since it has been demonstrated that laboratory animals thrive more successfully on cooked and canned products than on raw foods, it is more than reasonable to suppose that the same observation would hold for human beings could adequately controlled experiments be undertaken.

McCance (1936) found nuts to contain from 1.7 per cent (sucrose hazels) to 7 per cent (chestnuts). Chestnuts, however, are unusual in that they are rich in starch (30 per cent) and low in fat (may be less than 3 per cent). Complex carbohydrates, which are probably not utilizable, are present in most nuts.

Unassimilable carbohydrates included in the diet to give bulk and to promote regular peristalsis are, of course, without caloric value. Agar-agar is hydrolyzed in the intestines only to a very limited extent. Precise knowledge regarding the fate of complex polysaccharides is lacking.

Sugars, especially lactose, are frequently prescribed for the bacterial flora of the colon rather than as fuel for the host. Where agar serves as substrate for bacterial action, fermentation occurs, with formation of such acids as acetic, lactic and butyric favoring secondary evacuation.

Availability of Calcium.—Calcium salts from different food sources are not equally well utilized. This may be due in part to resistance in cellulose fiber, but it is primarily dependent upon the presence of oxalic acid. If a food contains enough oxalic acid to combine with all of its calcium to form calcium oxalate, the indication seems to be that the calcium is of little or no use to the body. In such plant calcium exists as the insoluble oxalate. Where the calcium is bound to protein, as in milk, it is obviously more available for absorption. Milk calcium is usually regarded as wholly assimilable. Judging by biologic experiments, the calcium of kale is almost as available as that in milk; this is attributed to the low oxalate content of kale. Spinach, on the other hand, is rich in oxalates. Investigations by Kohman (1939) indicate that spinach not only supplies no available calcium but actually renders unassimilable a considerable portion of calcium from other sources when fed with the spinach. Recognition of such factors is necessary in the elaboration of a diet which will provide assimilable calcium. Broccoli and cauliflower also rank with milk. Experiments conducted by Fincke (1941) find the calcium of cauliflower and broccoli ranking with kale in the availability of their calcium.

Experiments with adults on a balanced diet containing 1.5 gram calcium showed fecal excretion of 71 per cent as contrasted with 40 per cent when 15 grams of NaHCO_3 were added to the diet and 60 per cent when 300 cc. of 0.1 N HCl were included; the total excre-

tion, however, was the same; merely the distribution between feces and urine was altered. Since diminished alkalinity of the absorbing area aids in the passage of calcium into the body, it is customary to employ varying amounts of HCl (as well as lactic acid or its precursor, lactose). For example, 50 to 100 cc. of N/3 HCl may be introduced into milk (1:20) before ingestion. Telfer (1939) investigating calcium metabolism in a child of six years concluded that HCl adversely affected the process of calcification. Greater absorption under acid conditions is apt to be associated with augmented urinary excretion and diminished retention of calcium.

Absorbability of calcium may be taken as a criterion of availability, yet this is not the whole story of calcium metabolism. The term, *utilization*, may be used to cover the broader field. In this sense, various foods and drugs (as calcium gluconate) may be studied by means of "balance" experiments for data as to relative increment of calcium retention compared to corresponding increment of intake.

Calcium balance studies which have been carried out with persons on high and low protein diets indicate that the diet high in protein resulted in an absorption of 15 per cent of the dietary calcium as compared to 5 per cent absorption on the low protein diet.

It is suggested by Sherman that at least two-thirds of the daily intake of calcium be derived from milk or cheese. As far as calcium and phosphorus are concerned, skim and whole milk are practically identical. When cheese is produced by acid coagulation, the larger part of the calcium remains in the whey, whereas coagulation of casein by rennin results in the precipitation of calcium in the curd. Cheddar cheese, therefore, contains approximately ten times as much calcium as does cottage cheese. Sherman emphasizes the fact that egg-yolk is almost ten times as rich in calcium as are meats and fish and two to five times as rich as breadstuffs. Unknown factors which occur in milk, eggs, and orange juice improve the retention of calcium particularly in growing children. Generous use of these items is therefore recommended.

Availability of Phosphorus.—Not all phosphorus compounds found in foods are equally utilizable. A variable amount (20 to 60 per cent) of ingested phytins (calcium-magnesium salts of inositolhexaphosphoric acid) are excreted unchanged. The fate of the remainder is obscure. On the average, 97.5 per cent of the phosphorus of animal origin is utilizable. Phosphorus is widely distributed in animal and plant foods so that the average diet undoubtedly contains an adequate amount. Where cereals bulk large in the dietary, the total phosphorus content is a wholly incorrect guide as to the available phosphorus intake. With the exception of cocoanut and chestnuts, nuts are rich in phosphorus, but as much as 86 per cent may be present as phytins and so of doubtful worth. The diet should be planned to contain sufficient phosphorus without dependence upon phytin-rich foods.

Availability of Iron.—Simple iron salts seem to provide the element in its most readily available form. Highly complex organic iron compounds, such as found in blood, are not utilized to any appreci-

extent. Since there are many organic and inorganic factors other than iron which influence hemoglobin production in anemia, haphazard generalizations about "food iron" are not safe (Whipple, 1935). The availability of iron from foods has had far reaching investigation. This has resulted in the premise that foods vary significantly in their available iron. Individuals will differ in their ability to utilize available iron and manufacture hemoglobin. Available or ionizable iron is determined with α - α' -dipyridyl since iron in the form of hematin-like compounds does not react with this substance. Because of uncertainty attached to such findings, biologic experiments are generally employed also.

Rose *et al.* (1935) found that the iron of egg-yolk and bran which had been steamed and toasted were equally efficient in maintaining equilibrium in two human beings. The iron in spinach is largely in the hematin form. Harris, Mosher and Bunker (1939) found that first-grade molasses (which is a rich and inexpensive source of iron) to be 97 per cent available by the chemical procedure and 90 per cent available in animal tests; second and third-grade molasses were 80 and 50 per cent available in the biologic studies. Ascham *et al.* (1939) report that the iron in the legumes is completely available for the regeneration of hemoglobin in the nutritionally-anemic rat. Sherman suggests that iron deficiency conditions may be due more to a disorder in the body than to faulty nutrition. Also that recent experiments show that, when the dietary is well balanced, the body has a more efficient economy of iron.

TRADITIONAL EVALUATION OF FOODS.

During the past 100 years the diets in this country have changed. As a result of advances in nutrition, many of the practices of the past have been disproved. Greater emphasis is now placed on fruits and vegetables and milk, whereas our forefathers consumed large amounts of bread, meat and potato. Sherman advocates that 50 per cent of calories should be derived from fruits, vegetables, cereals, milk and milk products. The great strength-giving qualities of *broth* have been mythical. It has been definitely proved that meat extracts in the form of soups, whether made from chicken or beef, whether prepared at home or bought as an extract, are relatively devoid of caloric value. As a food for weight reduction or in the treatment of diabetes, they are universally recommended. Also, as a stimulant of gastric secretion, particularly of hydrochloric acid, they may be properly prescribed. For the debilitated and anemic individual, the administration of *broth* may sufficiently stimulate the gastric secretion to artificially produce an appetite for a greater quantity of food than that which would normally be expected.

The *white meat of chicken*, as a food for the invalid, aside from its edible pleasing appearance, has acquired a successful competitor in the dark meat from the same fowl. Frankly, the average palate is more pleased by the eating of dark meat, particularly as it is

generally found to be more moist and seems to be slightly better flavored.

Red meat, in contradistinction to well-done meat, has likewise been found to be without a nutritional difference.

The merits of *vegetable diets* have been widely extolled. In the instances it is assumed that the normal protein requirement is supplied in the main by vegetables and nuts. Obviously, to obtain the requisite amount of protein from these items, a total vegetable and nut ingestion beyond the capacity of a normal person is necessitated. Vegetarianism, in spite of its widespread acclamation and devoted followers, presents an inexplicable inconsistency. Its principles forbid animal protein, but milk, eggs, and cheese—all animal products—are incorporated into the diets, at times most lavishly. In general most vegetable proteins have lower digestibility and biological values than animal proteins. Recent studies have demonstrated, however, the completeness of some vegetable proteins in the nutrition of rats and dogs.

Then there is *spinach*—once highly lauded, now partly in disgrace. It can no longer be regarded as a reliable source of calcium. Although it contains a fairly large proportion of calcium, it is in the form of calcium oxalate which cannot be utilized. It can still hold its own, however, for its laxative properties and its vitamin score is good (A, B, and C—if not lost in cooking). Nevertheless, it is anticipated that less objectionable green vegetables will supersede spinach, especially for children.

Eggs are often thought to be indigestible if cooked hard. Experiments have shown, however, that it is the raw or lightly-cooked egg which may fail to be digested thoroughly. If the egg is cooked at the right temperature and chopped fine it will digest as quickly as the soft cooked one. The patient's preference, rather than the physician's, should be the guiding factor in the serving of eggs.

There has been much controversy over the inclusion of tea and coffee in the diet. Except in gastric cases, severe cardiac cases and other conditions where it is contraindicated by the physician, there is little evidence that the daily cup of coffee for breakfast has any adverse effect. This may mean the difference between enjoyment and non-enjoyment of a meal.

THE FEEDING OF CONVALESCENTS

The prominent role that food plays in the recovery of the patient is not questioned today. In the hospital we are aware that proper nutrition may diminish some of the effects of illness and certainly shorten the duration of convalescence.

Healthful, nourishing food is so very important to the person gaining a new foothold on the road to health. In planning this diet, the same fundamental principles upon which the normal diet is based will be used although taking into consideration that during illness, the digestive ability of an individual is always lowered. Consequently, there is the need for foods easily digested

readily absorbed. Present day methods call for modification of the normal diet rather than the use of complicated and too elaborate special diets. This consistent effort to keep the diet as normal as possible holds true whether in the hospital or for any modifications necessary at home as in the case of the diabetic person. Both from a psychological as well as from an economic standpoint it is bad for an individual to feel himself set apart from other members of the family.

Most people are hard to please! It has often been said that it is more difficult to please the palates of those who must patronize the hospital than it is to satisfy the appetites of those who are on vacation jaunt. A great deal of ingenuity is imperative in planning varied and interesting menus and the dietitian will need to use all the resources at her command.

The appetite is largely affected by the state of mind, and psychological factors are of the greatest importance. Individualization makes the keynote in the successful feeding of people. We do not always hope to reach the ideal, but at least we can attempt its attainment.

The completed meal should be visualized and an effort made to harmonize food colorings as well as to balance food constituents. The hospital often sells food to the patient or even to the members of the family at the table is the way it is served and the way it is seasoned. Hot foods should be served hot and cold foods cold.

We eat with our eyes. Best food tastes better if served in a pleasing dress manner, although on the other hand food may become repulsive and unattractive when too fancy. Simple garnishes, however, add a touch of glamour.

Attention to detail is paramount in the preparation of meals for the sick or convalescent. Patients should be presented with meals which stimulate a desire to eat. They should look forward to their meals with anticipation and back upon them with satisfaction.

Unless a patient can be persuaded to eat, little good will be accomplished in spite of the fact that the dietary is properly planned, prepared and served.

SECTION VII

TABULATION OF FOOD FACTORS.

IN the course of the dietetic management of patients, it is frequently necessary to reduce or increase a specific element. For the convenience of the clinician tabulation of high and low concentrations of the various food factors has been provided in the form of ready reference lists. This material is handicapped by lack of data to make the lists scientifically inclusive or exclusive. Where a desired food is not listed, the tables in the Appendix should be consulted to learn whether analytical data are available on the particular food or the item has been omitted because its composition is average rather than high or low. In every instance the clinician should be guided by the size of the portion served as well as by the percentage composition of the food.

The following lists are arranged in two alphabetical groups, first **high concentrations** of the various food elements, then **low concentrations**. The listing concludes with miscellaneous items.

HIGH-CONCENTRATION FOODS.

Foods Highest in Calcium.

Almonds	Ice-cream	Egg-yolk
Beans, dried, shelled	Kale	Figs, dried
Cabbage, outer green leaves	Maple syrup	Hazel nuts
Collards	Milk, malted milk, whole or skimmed,	Molasses
Dandelion greens	buttermilk,	Mustard greens
Canned salmon bones	evaporated,	Soybeans
Cheese, rennet	condensed, dried	Turnip greens
Clams		Watercress

Foods Moderately High in Carbohydrates.

Foods Containing 20 to 50 Per Cent Carbohydrates.

Apple butter	Dumpling	Pickles, sweet
Bananas	Fruits, canned, choice or standard	Pies and tarts
Cashew nuts	Griddle cakes	Puddings, as plum, rice, tapioca
Catsup	Ice-cream	Potatoes, cooked, sweet and white
Chestnuts	Legumes (dried), cooked	Prune juice
Chili sauce	Macaroni, boiled	Rice, boiled
Chocolate, sweetened	Peanut butter	Water-ices
unsweetened	Peanuts	
Cocoanut, fresh		
Corn, cooked		

Foods Highest in Carbohydrates.

Foods Containing More Than 50 Per Cent Carbohydrates.

Fruits and crackers	Doughnuts	Marmalades
Ad and rolls	Fruits, canned, fancy	Marshmallow
es	Fruits, dried	Milk chocolate
dried fruits	Honey	Molasses
dy	Jams and jellies	Popcorn
eals	Litchi "nuts"	Sugars and syrups
Condensed milk	Coconut, dried	Zwieback

Foods Highest in Cellulose (Roughage).

ables (whole)	Grapes	Plums
aragus	Horseradish	Pomegranates
anas.	Kohlrabi	Prunes
ns	Leafy vegetables	Pumpkin
ts	Lentils	Radishes
ries	Melons	Raisins
n products	Mushrooms	Rhubarb
bage .	Nuts	Salsify
rots	Okra	Spinach
iliflower	Onions	Squash
ery	Parsnips	Sweet potatoes
n	Peaches (whole)	Turnips
tes	Pears (whole)	Whole grain cereal
plant	Peas	products
s	Peppers, green	Yams

Foods Highest in Chlorides.

(All Brined, Corned, Pickled, Smoked and Salted Foods.)

con	Corned beef	Meat juice
ads	Dates	Molasses
nned meats and	Eggs	Olives
sh	Fish and meat pastes	Sausages
ese, cheddar	Milk	Soup cubes

Foods Highest in Cholesterol.

ains*	Liver*	Lard
g-yolk*	Sweetbreads*	Meats and poultry
h roe*	Butter	Oysters
honey*	Fish	Suet

Foods Highest in Copper.

coa powder	Molasses	Oysters
rn	Nuts	Wheat bran
guines	Oatmeal	Whole grains
er		

* Outstanding.

Foods Highest in Fats.**Foods Containing More Than 20 Per Cent Fat.**

Avocado	Egg-yolk	Oils, except mineral
Bacon	Fatty meats	Pastry
Bone-marrow	Fried foods	Potato chips
Butter	Goose	Salad dressings
Catfish	Lard	Sardines in oil
Caviar	Margarine	Sausage
Cheese, whole milk	Meats, except very lean	Suet
Chocolate	Nut butters or pastes	Turkey
Cream	Nuts, except chest-nuts	Whole milk powder
Duck		

Foods Highest in Iodine.

Agar-agar	Irish moss	Oysters
Clams	Leafy vegetables	Salmon
Crabmeat	Lobster	Salt-water fish
Eggs	Mushrooms	Shell-fish liquor
Fish-liver oils	Mussels	Watercress
Fish roe		

Foods Highest in Available Iron.

Almonds	Lentils, dried	Peas
Apricots, dried	Liver	Peas, dried
Beans, dried, shelled	Molasses	Prunes
Chard	Oatmeal	Raisins
Eggs	Oysters	Rye flour
Figs, dried	Parsley	Sausage
Heart	Peaches, dried	Wheat, whole,
Kidney	Peanuts	shredded, bran

Foods Highest in Magnesium.

Beans, dried	Molasses
Beet greens	Nuts
Cereals, except polished rice	Oatmeal
Cocoa	Paprika
Corn	Pepper
Dried fruits	Wheat bran
Legumes, dried	Wheat-germ

Foods Highest in Manganese.

Cocoa, dry	Nuts	Turnip and beet tops
Legumes	Pineapple, fresh	Whole grain cereals
Leafy vegetables		

Foods Highest in Niacin (Nicotinic Acid) A

en*	Milk, butter-milk,	Salmon
n, leafy vegetables	evaporated, dried,	Soy beans
ock	skimmed, whole	Tomato juice
ey beans	Peas, green, dried	Tomatoes
meats	Peanuts	Turnip greens
*	Peanut butter	Wheat-germ
	Pork, lean	Yeast*

Foods Highest in Oxalic Acid.

(In Order of Decreasing Percentage.)

y seeds	Spinach	Poke
squatters	Swiss chard	Pepper, ground
greens	Rhubarb	Sorrel
ane	Cocoa	Parsley

Foods Highest in Phosphorus.

, liver, etc.	Egg-yolk	Nuts
se	Legumes	Wheat-germ
olate	Meats, poultry, fish	Whole grain cereals
a	Milk, dried	Yeast, dried

Foods Highest in Potassium.

as	Endive	Nuts
s, dried	Guavas	Olives
s	Horseradish	Paprika
coli	Kohlrabi	Parsnips
olate	Legumes	Pepper, black
ls	Lettuce	Potatoes, white and
age greens	Limes	sweet
ar	Meat extracts	Pumpkins
als	Meats and fish	Rutabagas
a	Melons	Spinach
delion greens	Molasses	Turnips
l fruits	Mushrooms	
	Mustard	

Foods Highest in Proteins.

nds	Fish roe	Peanuts
ernuts	Game	Pistachio nuts
ew nuts	Gelatin, dry	Poultry
se	Gluten products	Protein milk
taceans	Legumes, dried	Soy-bean products
	Meats, lean	Walnuts, black
	Milk powder	Wheat cereals
	Oatmeal	

Foods Highest in Purins.

Meat extracts, broths, gravies*	Game birds	Salmon, canned
Sweetbreads*	Herring	Sardines, canned
Herring roe*	Mussels	Scallops
Cod roe	Organs (heart, kidneys, liver)	Smelts

Foods Moderately High in Purins.

Legumes	Muscle tissues of	Yeast
Mushrooms	meat, fish, poul-	
Spinach	try	

Foods Highest in Sodium.

Biscuits	Dandelion	Paprika
Bread	Crackers	Pepper, black
Butter	Egg-white	Raisins
Caviar	Lima beans, dried	Spinach
Celery	Meat extract	Turkey
Cheese	Olives	Wheat, entire
Clams	Oysters	

All brined, corned, pickled, smoked and salted foods.

Foods Highest in Sulfur.

Bacon	Clams	Meats
Beans, dried	Cocoa	Mustard, dry
Bran	Crackers	Nuts
Brussels sprouts	Eggs	Onions
Cabbage greens	Fish	Oysters
Cauliflower	Fowl	Peas, dried
Cereals	Horseradish	Swiss chard
Cheese	Macaroni	Watercress

Foods Highest in Vitamin A.

Apricots	Fish liver oils*	Parsley
Beet greens	Fish roe	Papayas
Butter	Green vegetables	Peaches, yellow
Carrots	Kale*	Spinach
Cheese, cheddar type	Liver	Turnip greens*
Cream	Milk, fresh, dried,	Watercress
Egg-yolk	evaporated	Yellow vegetables
Escarole*	Mangoes	

* Outstanding.

Foods Highest Vitamin B₁ or Thiamin

ator pear	Egg-yolk	Rice, brown,
s, fresh,	Leafy vegetables	converted
elled, soybeans	Legumes	Tomatoes
d, whole wheat	Nuts	Turnip greens
age, raw	Okra	Wheat bran
ots	Organ meats	Wheat-germ*
a, cornmeal	Peppers	Whole cereal grains
d brewer's yeast*	Pork	

Foods Highest in Vitamin B₂ or Riboflavin.

rots	Dried yeast*	Milk
ados	Eggs	Peanuts
greens	Figs, dried	Prunes
coli	Leafy vegetables	Soy beans
iflower	Lean meat	Turnip greens
ese	Liver*	Wheat-germ
berries		

Foods Highest in Biotin.

yolk	Liver	Molasses
ey	Milk	Yeast

Foods Highest in Choline.

als	Meat
s	Vegetables

Foods Highest in Folic Acid.

r	Spinach
cle meats	Tomatoes

Foods Highest in Pantothenic Acid.

ey	Whole grain cereals
r	Yeast

Foods Highest in Vitamin B₆ (Provisional).

a oil*	Olive oil*	Cereals, whole grain
onseed oil*	Peanut oil*	Legumes, especially
*	Rice oil*	soy beans
eed oil*	Wheat-germ oil*	Seeds

Foods Highest in Vitamin C or Ascorbic Acid.

age, new, raw*	Pimentos*	Broccoli
tard greens*	Watercress*	Sprouted grains
ey*	Cantaloupe	Strawberries, fresh
ika*	Citrus fruits	Kale
ers*	Papaya	Tomatoes

* Outstanding.

Foods Highest in Vitamin D.

Fish-liver oils*	Clams	Herring
Foods enriched with vitamin D	Cream	Oysters
Burbot, ling (European)	Egg-yolk	Salmon
Butter (variable)	Haddock	Sardines
	Halibut	

Foods Highest in Vitamin E.

Wheat-germ*	Leafy vegetables	Peanuts
Butter (pasture-fed cows)	Legumes	Vegetable oils (corn, olive, palm, cotton seed)
Cereal seeds	Meat	
Eggs	Milk	Whole grain cereals
	Molasses	

Foods Highest in Vitamin K.

Alfalfa leaf meal*†	Green leaves:	Pig-liver fat
Egg-yolk	Carrot tops	Soy-bean oil
Cabbage	Kale	Tomatoes
Cauliflower	Spinach	Sea weed

Foods Highest in Water.**Foods Containing Over 70 Per Cent Water.**

Asparagus	Eggs	Shell-fish
Beef juice	Fruit juices	Soups
Berries	Fruits, fresh	Stews
Beverages	Gruels	Vegetable juices
Buttermilk	Leafy vegetables	Vegetables, fresh, canned
Calf's foot jelly	Milk	
Cream, 20 per cent	Sauerkraut	

LOW-CONCENTRATION FOODS.**Foods Lowest in Calcium.**

Alimentary pastes	Crabs	Onions
Asparagus	Crackers and biscuits	Orchard fruits
Bacon	Egg-white	Peppers, green
Bananas	Eggplant	Pineapple
Beef juice	Fish	Potatoes, white and sweet
Beets	Flour	Scallops
Berries	Fruit juices	Soft water
Bread, white, rye	Honey	Squash
Brussels sprouts	Jelly	Sugar
Butter	Lettuce, headed	Tapioca
Citrus fruits	Lobster	Tea
Coffee	Mayonnaise	Tomatoes
Cooked cereals	Meats	Vinegar
Corn, green	Melons	
Corn syrup	Mushrooms	

* Outstanding.

† Used in reinforced cereals and infants' foods.

Foods Lowest in Carbohydrates

Foods Containing 0.5 to 3 Per Cent Carbohydrates.

Paragus, cooked	Crabs	Pickles, dill
Russels sprouts,	Cream, 40 per cent	Poultry
cooked	Cucumbers	Romaine
bbage, boiled	Escarole	Sauerkraut juice
uliflower, cooked	Fish	Shad roe
lery, cooked	Kohlrabi, cooked	Shrimp
lery cabbage	Lemon juice	Soy-bean milk
ard, cooked	Lettuce	Spinach, cooked
ese, cheddar type	Lobster	Swiss cheese
icory	Meats, except very fat	Turnip tops, cooked
ams, soft-shell	Okra, cooked	

Foods Negligible in Carbohydrates.

acon	Pickles, sour
ne-marrow	Philadelphia cream cheese
ouillon	Roquette
tter	Salad dressing, French
onsommé	Sea-kale
gs	Sorrel
elatin, dry	Soy-bean meal
ollandaise sauce	Specific dietetic foods
ish moss	Truffles
ard	Vegetable marrow, cooked
argarine	Vegetables, 3 per cent, boiled in much water
eat juice	Vinegar
ushrooms	Whitefish, steamed
ls	

Foods Lowest in Cellulose. (Roughage)

imentary pastes	Fish	Molasses
arrowroot flour products	Fruit juices	Mollusks
beef juice	Gelatin	Oils
tter	Gruels	Puréed foods
akes, crackers, biscuits	Honey	Sago
(refined flour)	Ice-cream,	Soups, strained
ereals, refined	plain	Starches
heese	Jellies	Sugars
hicken	Mayonnaise	Vegetable juices
ream	Meats	White bread
eggs	Milk	White potatoes

Foods Lowest in Chlorides.

Apple butter	Figs, fresh	Onions
Barley, pearled	Fruit juices	Orchard fruits
Berries	Grapes	Parsnips
Buckwheat	Honey	Peas, fresh
Cabbage	Jellies	Peppers, green
Chestnuts	Lima beans	Pomegranates
Citrus fruits, except limes	Maple syrup	String beans
Corn	Mushrooms	Tapioca
Cucumbers, fresh	Mustard, dry	Watermelon
Currants, fresh		

Foods Lowest (Negligible) in Cholesterol.

Breadstuffs	Nuts
Egg-white	Sugars and syrups
Cereals	Vegetables
Fruits	Vegetable oils

Foods Lowest (Negligible) in Fats.

Bouillon	Greens, cooked	Pickles
Cabbage	Haddock	Pineapple
Candy	Hominy	Radishes
Celery	Honey	Rhubarb
Cheese, skim milk	Jams	Rice
Citrus fruits	Jellies	Root vegetables
Cod	Lichi nuts	Salad greens, except cress and dandelion
Consommé	Marmalade, orange	Sauerkraut
Cornstarch	Marshmallow	Squash
Cranberry sauce	Meat juice	String beans
Cucumber	Melons	Sugars
Currants, fresh	Molasses	Syrups
Egg-white	Mushrooms	Tapioca
Figs	Okra	Tomatoes
Fruit juices	Orchard fruits	Vinegar
Gelatin, dry	Peppers, green	

Foods Lowest in Magnesium.

Dairy products	Refined cereals
Fruit juices	Root vegetables
Fruits	Salad vegetables

Foods Lowest in Nicotinic Acid.

Cereals	Root vegetables	Butter
Fats	Sugars	Gelatin
Fruits	Syrups	Oils

Foods Lowest in Oxalic Acid.

Animal foods	Cucumbers	Mustard greens
Apples	Grapes	Nectarines
Avocados	Peaches	Peas
Bananas	Grapefruit	Plums
Broccoli	Lemon juice	Radishes
Cherries, sweet	Lime juice	Squash, summer
Cress	Melons	Turnips

Foods Lowest in Phosphorus.

Asparagus	Escarole	Peppers, green
Beet greens	Fruit juices	Pumpkin
Beets	Fruits	Radishes
Butter	Honey	Refined cereals
Cabbage	Jelly	Rhubarb
Carrots	Maple syrup	Squash
Corn syrup	Mayonnaise	Tapioca
Cucumber	Molasses	Tomatoes
Eggplant	Olives	Whey
Egg-white		

Foods Lowest in Potassium.

Apples	Crackers	Milk
Asparagus	Cream	Okra
Bacon	Cucumbers	Onions
Cherries	Eggplant	Oysters
Bread, rye, white	Eggs	Pears
Butter	Farina	Peppers, green
Buttermilk	Fruit juices (except pine-apple and tomato)	Pork
Cheese	Grapes	Rice, white
Citrus fruits	Hominy	Soup
Clams	Macaroni	Squash, summer
Corn, green		Watermelon

Foods Lowest in Proteins.

Carrowroot flour	Fruits and juices	Potatoes, white and sweet
Beans, string	Honey and syrups	Refined carbohydrates
Beef-marrow	Jellies	Rhubarb
Butter	Marmalade	Salad dressing, French
Cabbage family	Mayonnaise	Salad vegetables
Vegetables	Molasses	Squash
Carrots	Oils	Tapioca
Cassava	Okra	Tomatoes
Catsup	Olives	Turnips
Cocoanut milk	Pickles	Vegetable juices
Eggplant	Potato flour	

Foods Practically Purin-free.

Cheese	Most vegetables except	Processed cereals
Cream	spinach, mushrooms,	Gelatin
Eggs, fresh	lentils, asparagus	Milk
Fruits		

Foods Low in Purins.

Boiled meats, separated	Onions
from fluid	String beans
Celery	

Foods Lowest in Sodium.

Cereals	Honey	Parsnips
Chocolate	Kidney beans	Potatoes
Cream	Lettuce	Rice
Flour	Macaroni	Squash
Fruit juices	Maple syrup	Tomatoes
Fruits	Molasses	Wheat gluten

Foods Lowest in Sulfur.

Butter	Salad vegetables, except ca
Fruit and vegetable juices	bage, onions and watercre
Fruits	Starches, as arrowroot, sago
Rhubarb	Sugars and syrups
Root vegetables, except rutabagas	

Foods Lowest in Vitamin A.

Bacon	Cucumbers	Molasses
Beets	Eggplant	Onions
Bread	Egg-white	Pears
Cabbage, white	Figs	Potatoes
Celery, blanched	Flour, white	Radishes
Cereals	Grapefruit	Raisins
Cocoa butter	Grapes	Rice
Concentrated carbo-	Lard	Turnips
hydrates (honey,	Lean fish and meats	Vegetable fats and o
starches, etc.)	Lemons	Watermelon
Cranberries	Milk, skim	

Foods Lowest in Vitamin B₁ or Thiamin.

Apples	Fish	Peaches
Beef juice	Honey	Pears
Berries	Kohlrabi	Peppers
Butter	Lard	Plums
Celery	Limes	Polished rice
Cheese	Milk	Rhubarb
Cranberries	Molasses	Sauerkraut
Cucumbers	Oils	Starches
Eggplant	Onions	Sugars
Egg-white	Patent flour	Turnip
Fats		

Foods Lowest in Vitamin B₂ or Riboflavin.

Apples	Flour	Oranges
Barley	Grapefruit	Pineapple
Blackberry juice	Grapes	Radishes
Corn	Honey	Rice
Cranberries	Lemons	Rye
Cucumbers	Oatmeal	Tomatoes
Eggs	Oils	Turnips
Eggplant	Olives	Wheat, whole
Fruits	Onions	

Foods Lowest in Vitamin B₆ Pyridoxine (Provisional).

Egg-white	Fruits	Vegetables
Eggs	Milk	Egg

Foods Lowest in Vitamin C or Ascorbic Acid.

Apples	Dried and stored	Meats
Apricots	fruits	Milk
Beet	Dried vegetables	Nuts
Butter	Eggs	Olives
Carrots	Fats and oils	Pears
Cereals	Fish	Plums
Cheese	Grapes	Squash

Foods Lowest in Vitamin D.

Cereals	Lard	Peanut oil
Corn oil	Milk	Starches
Cottonseed oil	Nuts	Sugars
Fruits	Olive oil	Vegetables.

Foods Lowest in Vitamin E.

Butter (dry-fed cows)	Milk powder stored with oxygen
Cocoa butter	Refined corn oil
Cod-liver oil	Sesame oil
Lard	

Foods Lowest in Water.

Foods Containing Less Than 30 Per Cent Water.

Butter	Dried fruits	Pretzels
Cakes, crackers	Nuts	Smoked baco
Candy	Jellies	Suet
Cereals, ready-to-eat	Molasses	Syrups
Coconut	Popcorn	Zwieback
Crackers, biscuits	Potato chips	

MISCELLANEOUS.**Foods Most Effective in Increasing Hemoglobin.**

Apples	Brains	Pig kidney
Apricots	Calves' liver	Pineapple
Beef heart	Chicken gizzard	Prunes
Beef kidney	Chicken liver	Raisins
Beef liver	Lamb kidney	Strawberries
Beef spleen	Lamb liver	Whole grain cereals
Bone-marrow	Peaches	

Each of the following foods contains a high amount of iron, manganese and copper. They may be additionally infiltrated in any diet where increased hemoglobin is desired.

Almonds	Cocoa	Pineapple
Beans, kidney	Filberts	Pistachio nuts
Beans, lima	Lentils	Spinach
Beef juice	Liver, calves'	Walnuts
Cherries, fresh	Olives, green	Watercress
Chocolate	Parsley	Wheat bran

Flatulence-producing Foods.*Beverages.*

Carbonated waters, soft and highly sweetened drinks, malt beverages and sparkling wines.

Cheese.

Highly fermented cheeses.

Desserts.

Sweet foods, such as candy, maple sugar, honey, clear sugar, jam, etc.

Fruits.

Apples, raw	Raisins
Cantaloupe	Watermelon

Soups.

Meat broths, especially stock soups containing any of the following vegetables.

Vegetables.

Beans, dry	Cucumbers	Peas, dried
Broccoli	Garlic	Peppers, green, red
Brussels sprouts	Lentils	Radishes
Cabbage	Lettuce	Swiss chard
Cauliflower	Onions	Turnips

Other Substances.

Condiments, extremely hot or cold foods, nuts, excessively salted foods, spices, some uncooked foods and cold fried foods.

Fluid Foods.

verages.

Alcoholic, carbonated, coffee, coffee substitutes as Postum, tea.

als.

Strained with milk or water, as gruels.

serts.

Thin boiled custard, junket, plain ice-cream, gelatin, fruit ices and sherbets.

s.

In albumenized drinks, eggnogs, fruit juices.

its.

Strained juices.

k and Cream.

Malted milk, cocoa, buttermilk, fermented milks, whey, goat's milk.

ps.

Clear broth, strained vegetable and cream of vegetable.

etables.

Strained juices.

Soft Foods.

verages.

According to individual indication.

adstuffs.

Any bread, crackers or rolls made from white flour. Zwieback.

ter, Milk, Cream.

eals.

Finely ground, well cooked. Also, see vegetables.

ese.

Cottage, Philadelphia cream.

serts.

Plain puddings such as cornstarch, rice, tapioca, sago; ice-cream; plain cake and cookies; custards, gelatin, and junket.

s.

Baked, poached, soft-cooked or scrambled in double boiler; eggnogs, etc.

its.

Strained fruit juices, ripe bananas, fruit purées, cooked fruit without skin or seeds.

t and Fish.

Minced beef and lamb; chicken and fish, boiled, broiled, roasted or creamed; crisp bacon.

ps.

Clear broth, hot or jellied; strained vegetable and cream of vegetable.

Vegetables. Puréed; potatoes, baked, boiled or mashed; potato substitutes, boiled, buttered, or creamed; macaroni, nood spaghetti, vermicelli, rice.

Miscellaneous.

Sugar and salt in moderation; jellies and jams without skins and seeds.

NOTE.—In preparing a soft diet any fluid food may be added to the foregoing list.

Bland Foods.

(Antacid, Roughage-poor.)

Beverages.

Cocoa, cream, eggnog, milk, fermented milks, malted milks.

Breadstuffs.

Any bread, crackers or rolls made from white flour. Zwieback.

Cereals.

Strained Cream of Wheat, farina, oatmeal, arrowroot gruel, Wheatena or other cooked cereal. Macaroni, noodles, spaghetti.

Cheese.

Cottage cheese, cream cheese, pot cheese.

Desserts.

Blanc-mange, custard, frozen custard, junket. Soft milk-and-egg cereal puddings, such as cornstarch, rice, tapioca and arrowroot. Ice-cream, other than coffee or fruit flavor, and mousse.

Eggs.

Baked, poached, soft-cooked or scrambled in double-boiled with milk or cream. Also in custard, eggnog, etc.

Meat and Fish.

Meats such as chicken, fish (boiled, broiled or baked).

Soups.

Cream soups, made with cream or milk and flour, flavored with any of the allowed vegetables.

Vegetables. Purée of asparagus, carrot, beet, spinach, squash, string bean and green pea. Potatoes, white, mashed, riced or boiled. Rice (boiled or steamed).

Miscellaneous.

Butter and olive oil.

NOTE.—These foods are indicated in hyperchlorhydria of extragastric etiology in which there is no fat intolerance. They are also suitable for convalescent duodenal ulcer and mucous colitis with associated hyperchlorhydria.

Foods With Negligible Caloric Value.

Agar-agar.

Beverages

Bouillon, clear coffee, clear tea, clear Postum, Sanka, Kaff Hag, cracked cocoa, mineral waters, broth (skimmed), alkaline waters.

ls.

Starch-free bran cereal. (Prepared cereals without food value may be purchased.)

ral Oil.

As a substitute for olive oil in salad dressings; as a lubricant in pan-broiling and frying.

s.

Paprika, mustard, garlic, pepper, salt, vinegar. (Prepared condiments such as chili sauce, piccalilli, catsup usually contain ingredients that have considerable food value.)

h-free Bran Biscuits and Starch-free Bran Bread.

SECTION VIII.

FOOD ADJUNCTS.

Alcohol, Tea, Coffee, Condiments, Spices and Tobacco

Introduction.—In the complexity of the present-day dietary much stress is being placed on the vitamins, roughage and weight that the factor of palatability has been somewhat eclipsed. The art of preparing and serving meals is still as important as in days when eating was the outstanding dissipation. Then, as now, the secret of success was the judicious use of those food adjuncts which change the act of eating from one of mechanical refueling to the truly delightful and enjoyable experience of dining. Because of the combined psychic and mechanical stimulation to appetite excited by these adjuncts, the flow of gastric juice can be changed from a mere trickle to a virtual flood, and the attitude of the stomach changed from that of mere passive acceptance to a truly enthusiastic reception of the oncoming meal. These adjuncts to be sure do not supply any appreciable amount of the essentials which we require to maintain normal tissue metabolism; but they do serve the more noble, if not so necessary, purpose of making those essentials found in the regular run of foods, appear as luxuries and the partaking of them pleasing as well as satisfying.

Alcohol (Ethyl).—Ethyl alcohol is formed by fermentation, synthesis and by natural body processes. In this discussion, that derived from fermentation alone will be considered. Ethyl alcohol has a fuel value of 7 Calories per gram, which is approximately midway between those of carbohydrate and fat. It is 98 per cent completely oxidized in the body.

Tables 19 and 83 on pages 189 and 853 indicate the range of alcoholic content of the more common beverages.

The first noted effect of alcoholic beverages on the gastro-intestinal system is found in the mouth where there is an increased secretion of saliva. The constituents of the saliva are unaltered; there is merely a quantitative increase. This is the result of the reflex stimulation of the odor and taste of the beverage. Associated with this, there is a stimulation of the gastric secretion, as well as of gastric peristalsis. The digestive ferments are unaltered except in volume. On ingestion of larger amounts of alcohol, that is, 100 cc. or more of brandy, there is noted a profuse secretion of mucus in the stomach indicating probable deleterious effect. When combined with large amounts of sugar, alcohol is much more irritating to the mucous membranes of the stomach and absorption is markedly accelerated under these conditions. Approximately 20 per cent of the alcohol is absorbed from the stomach. Habitual users of alcohol develop a slower rate of absorption. Subjectively, alcohol appears to act as a diuretic. This is the result of the very rapid absorption of fluid from the gastro-intestinal tract with its consequent elimination. There has been no true diuretic action of alcohol demonstrated.

TABLE 19.—Alcoholic Content of Some Common Beverages.

	Alcohol by weight Per cent.
<i>Wines</i> —by fermentation of saccharine substances as corn, oat, barley, molasses, potatoes, grapes, etc.	35-45
Whiskey, brandy, rum, gin	
<i>Liquors</i> —by fermentation of malt and hops	3-7
Beer, stout, ale, porter	
<i>Wines</i> —by fermentation of grape juice	15-20
Strong dry wines—Port, Sherry, Madeira	
Strong stout wines—Tokay, Malaga, Sweet Cham- pagne	8-12
Aromatic Wines—Moselle, Capri, some Rhine wines	7-12
Sparkling Wines—Dry Champagne, Sparkling Bur- gundy	9-13
Perfect Wines—Sauterne, Bordeaux	8-15
Rough Wines—high tannic-acid content derived chiefly from the grape skin, Claret, Burgundy	6-10
<i>Cordons and Bitters</i> —fruits of aromatic herbs, steeped in rectified alcohol and water	
Chartreuse, Benedictine, Curaçao, Absinthe, Ango- stura	18-50
<i>Beer</i> —fermented juice of ripe apples	3-6

Alcohol acts as a narcotic and depresses the central nervous system, more especially the higher centers, thus releasing the lower centers from the cerebral restraint, producing increased freedom of thought and action and greater self-confidence with a sense of well-being. Sensory perception is dulled and muscular incoördination results.

Absorption of alcohol brings about a dilatation of the peripheral blood-vessels and probably of the deeper vessels, resulting in a sensation of warmth. Actually an increase in peripheral temperature of 1° to 2.5° F. as measured at the tip of the third finger can be brought about by the ingestion of 2 ounces of brandy. This effect is evident within fifteen minutes of ingestion. There is usually a slight fall in blood-pressure, the pulse is accelerated, and premature contractions are occasionally associated with overindulgence.

It is recognized that alcohol can be used to advantage during the course of many illnesses, more especially those of a more chronic nature, and during the convalescent period. Sherry, brandy, whiskey and port wine, when judiciously administered, are of definite value. Alcohol is easily oxidized, stimulates the appetite and tends to produce a sense of well-being, particularly in the older patient. As a stomachic, if wisely prescribed, alcohol possesses considerable value.

In the treatment of the accompanying cachexia of carcinoma, sherry, malt wine, etc., can be used to advantage. Because of its vasodilator effect, alcohol can be used for the relief of cardiac pain incident upon coronary disease. When better vasodilators, such as the nitrates, are not available, brandy may be used and is moderately effective. It relieves the sense of depression which is often associated with the respiratory diseases, more especially pneumonia, brandy is of real value, the amount to be judged somewhat by the previous habits of the patient.

In chronic hyperacidity, as found in the presence of peptic ulcer, alcohol in all forms is contraindicated. In all diseases of the liver, such as hepatitis (catarrhal jaundice), cirrhosis, etc., alcohol should be avoided. In genito-urinary infections alcohol is not advised. In nephritis it is allowable under certain circumstances (p. 240).

Coffee and Tea.—In the average adult the usual consumption of coffee and tea does little harm. They add to the palatability and enjoyment of the associated meal but contain practically no nutritive or the nutrient ingredients.

“*Tea* contains no theobromine but contains from 1.5 to 3.5 per cent of caffeine, the amount of caffeine depending more upon the quality of the tea rather than upon its variety. Cheap tea, containing extraneous matter and low quality of leaf, will contain less caffeine than the same tea of high quality. The following table is taken from ‘Allen’s Commercial Organic Analysis.’* ”

TABLE 20.

Kind of tea.	Caffeine, per cent.
Cheap Chinese	1.5
Chinese	2.9
Oolong	2.3
Congo	2.4
Japan	2.5
Indian	3.5
Ceylon	3.3
Java	3.4

“The amount of caffeine contained in an infusion of tea depends upon several factors, among which are the quality and quantity of tea used in the preparation of the infusion, the ratio of tea to water used in making the infusion, the temperature at which the tea is steeped and the length of time required for steeping. When steeped in accordance with the official method, that is, the use of 60 parts of boiling water to 1 part of tea, then the amount of caffeine removed from the original leaf after three and five minutes’ steeping is shown by the following table of Tatlock and Thompson:

TABLE 21.

	Three minutes’ infusion.			Five minutes’ infusion.		
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.
Caffeine	76	39	62	87	52	77

“The preceding table shows the average of 21 samples of tea to be 62 per cent after three minutes infusion and 77 per cent after five minutes infusion, with a minimum of 39 per cent and 52 per cent respectively.”

The ordinary infusion of *coffee* contains 1 to 2 grains of caffeine per cup. If boiled during the preparation the amount of tannic acid increases. During the process of roasting the volatile oil *kahua* develops and gives the flavor and aroma. The following is the estimated caffeine content for raw, roasted and decaffeinated coffee:

* Furnished by the Tea Association of the U. S. of America through the courtesy of F. C. Gephart, Ph.D.

coffee tends to increase intestinal peristalsis, as the slight irritation caused by the tannic acid present. As indicated, coffee and tea contain the purin body, caffeine, which has a definite diuretic action. According to Voit (1936) a reduction of 23 per cent in target organ weight was observed in 10 soldiers subjected to six thousand tests during the ingestion of coffee. Caffeine-free coffee did not diminish their accuracy although it produced the same psychic and motoric effects as the caffeinated beverage.

TABLE 22.

	Caffeine, per cent
Raw—beans dried at a high temperature	1.08
Roasted—beans dried, then roasted and then ground	0.82
Decaffeinated—unground beans exhausted with water in a vacuum and the resulting infusion treated with a solution removing the caffeine	0.03 to 0.13

Coffee and tea stimulate the nervous system, more especially the cerebral centers and may temporarily induce mental clarity, facilitate the reception of sensory impressions and the removal of the sense of fatigue. Definite impairment of sleep usually results from the consumption of an amount equivalent to 6 grains of caffeine (5 to 6 grains of tea or 3 to 4 cups of coffee). There may result a slight vasoconstriction of the peripheral blood-vessels. In the unaccustomed, blood-pressure rises slightly and then falls, the pulse is usually accelerated, and a diuresis is evident. Overindulgence may bring about frequent premature cardiac contractions. Habitual users of these beverages show little, if any, effect on the rate, force and rhythm of the heart.

Tea and coffee directly stimulate the respiratory center and the respiratory rate increases. There is a slight increase in the basal metabolic rate reported by most observers.

The slight stimulating effect of tea and coffee makes these beverages valuable in the treatment of the more chronic diseases. In the case of gastritis with vomiting, tea or coffee is very well tolerated.

The use of tea and coffee is contraindicated in all conditions associated with hyperacidity, more particularly in the presence of a gastric ulcer.

Chocolate and Cocoa.—Chocolate and cocoa are both products of the cocoa bean, the seeds of which are fermented and roasted. Theobromine is the chief alkaloid therein and is present in amounts of 1 to 2 per cent. Cocoa has a carbohydrate content of 37 per cent and fat content of 28 per cent. In chocolate, the carbohydrate content is 30 per cent and the fat 48 per cent. Because of the fat and carbohydrate constituents, cocoa and chocolate tend to inhibit gastric secretion. These analyses are of the dried products. When used as a beverage they are materially reduced.

Condiments and Spices.—Condiments and spices owe their properties mostly to the volatile oils. Each has its characteristic flavor which determines its use in cooking. The classes are as follows:

Stimulating Condiments: Pepper (cayenne, paprika, white and black), mustard seed, horseradish and salt.

Aromatic Spices: All-spice, pimento, anise, caraway, oil of cinnamon, ground cinnamon, cloves, coriander, cumin seed, ginger, mace and nutmeg.

Sweet Herbs: Bay leaf, dill seed, fennel, marjoram, sage, savory, thyme and sassafras.

Manufactured Extracts (fortified by alcohol): Vanilla, lemon, pineapple, cherry, orange, walnut and banana.

Miscellaneous Preparations: Catsup, Worcestershire, chili sauce, mayonnaise and vinegar.

The condiments in moderation improve appetite because of the direct action on the taste buds. Digestion is aided only reflexly because of the increased stimulation of gastric secretion. Condiments in excess are irritating to the intestinal tract and to the renal parenchyma. Traces of condiments are found as such in the urine.

Tobacco and Its Effect on Diet.—Tobacco is in no sense a food substance and cannot be considered a food adjunct. However, tobacco does contain the alkaloid *nicotine*, and other volatile products which are absorbed. On chemical analysis of tobacco smoke the composition depends to a great extent on the manner and rate with which the cigarette is smoked. The side-stream or smoke from the lighted end of the cigarette ordinarily constitutes the greater part of the actual material given off under combustion. This contains a low concentration of carbon monoxide with a high percentage of nicotine. Smoke which has been sucked in contains an appreciable amount of carbon monoxide. This has been estimated to be as much as 8.3 cc. from each gram of tobacco smoked, which is approximately the amount of tobacco in each cigarette. The amount of nicotine in smoke sucked in, is much greater than that of the side-stream. This has been estimated at from 3 to 9 mg. from each gram of smoked tobacco. Approximately 88 per cent of this is absorbed. American brands of cigarettes average about 2.5 per cent nicotine.

Whether or not nicotine is the primary toxic agent in tobacco smoke, it is interesting to note that nicotine is rapidly absorbed from skin and mucous membranes. Its main action is a brief stimulation of the sympathetic and parasympathetic ganglia followed by a depression. The stimulation of the ganglia results in a rise in blood-pressure. In addition to the nicotine and carbon monoxide, the aspirated smoke contains pyridine, aldehydes and volatile oils. These are generally considered of very little significance.

It has been variously demonstrated that those who inhale in the process of smoking absorb approximately eight times as much nicotine as those smokers who do not inhale. When we consider that, in the act of inhaling, the smoke is exposed to the mucous membrane of the naso-pharynx and the lower respiratory passages, thus giving an indefinitely larger area on which the products of smoking may condense, we may expect a greater deposition and consequent absorption of nicotine and other components than would result from simply puffing the smoke in and out of the mouth.

that smoking has an effect on the cardiovascular system has been suspected. These disturbances are characterized principally by phenomena of vasoconstriction which appear first in the central, and then in the peripheral vessels. A rise in blood-pressure to 30 mm. of mercury, with an acceleration of pulse of 10 to 40, is frequently found. The best explanation for the so-called "Tobacco Angina" is that this is the result of the constrictive action of tobacco on the cardiac blood vessels.

Smoking also tends to stimulate the glands of the stomach to secrete hydrochloric acid. This is brought about by irritation of the mucous membranes of the stomach and is not beneficial in any case. Those who suffer from chronic hyperacidity or peptic ulcer should avoid smoking entirely; if this is not possible, limit themselves to smoking after eating.

In the more recent work done by Johnson and Short, the temperature of the skin at the tip of the third finger was recorded in a number of subjects while smoking. These subjects included non-smokers as well as smokers. They found a consistent drop in peripheral temperature, varying from 2° to 10° F., in these subjects. Those who inhaled showed a much greater drop in temperature than those who did not inhale.

Further studies by Johnson and Short seem to confirm the work of Maggard and Greenberg that an increased blood sugar, as well as other phenomena brought about by sympathetic nervous system stimulation, also results from smoking. This they believe to be the result of adrenal stimulation by nicotine through the sympathetic system.

Nausea, spasms of the intestines with diarrhea and constipation may be caused by nicotine. Tobacco is naturally contraindicated in chronic gastritis and peptic ulcer.

Tobacco amblyopia is the result of a toxic effect of nicotine causing blurring of vision, derangement of accommodation and a dilated pupil. These symptoms appear before actual degeneration takes place. When smoking is discontinued the symptoms usually disappear.

SECTION IX.

SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS OF FEEDING

Introduction.—In order to thoroughly understand any method of feeding, an appreciation is needed of both the mechanics and physiology of digestion. Reference to other portions of this book will readily furnish this material in condensed form.

It is necessary to institute artificial methods of feeding in cases where it is impossible to feed by the routine manner, or in cases in which the daily calories ingested are not sufficient to maintain or augment body nutrition, *i. e.*, coma, alimentary obstruction, anorexia, general debility, senility and in the insane. Additional artificial means of feeding are commonly utilized in the treatment of gastric and duodenal ulcers.

ABSORPTION OF FOOD ELEMENTS AND WATER.

Absorption of *carbohydrates* in artificial feeding is dependent directly upon the form in which the carbohydrate is presented to the body, as well as that portion of the alimentary tract with which it comes in contact. The polysaccharides and disaccharides are less readily absorbed and assimilated than the monosaccharides. Glucose, being a monosaccharide, is unquestionably the carbohydrate of choice. This is particularly true in rectal feeding. It must be remembered that carbohydrate is not digested in the stomach. The initial change takes place in the mouth, and is resumed at the distal portion of the duodenum.

Fats begin to be absorbed beyond the pylorus. Refer to Physiology and Chemistry of Digestion. In rectal feeding it is evident that the introduction of fat is not indicated.

Proteins undergo little or no change in the mouth. Their digestion is begun in the stomach wherein the majority of proteins undergo molecular disintegration and solution. The introduction of protein per rectum, or through fistular feedings in a lower portion of the intestinal tract, is theoretically improper.

Fluids in the form of water are absorbed throughout the intestinal tract. Hence the administration of water by artificial means is a paramount procedure.

Supplementary feedings are divided as follows: Nasal feeding (*nasal gavage*), non-natural oral feeding (*oral gavage*). This in itself is subdivided into *gastric gavage* and *duodenal and jejunal gavage* or feeding. *Fistular and rectal feeding* completes the general modes of usage.

NASAL GAVAGE.

The technique of nasal feeding (*gavage*) consists in the introduction, through the nares into the esophagus, of a well-lubricated small-sized stomach or duodenal tube. The size of the tube will depend upon the bore of the nasal aperture. In a narrow nasal

ture, or in an infant, a catheter may be used. It is very essential before introducing the food elements to see that the tube or catheter has not entered the larynx. This can be determined by listening for respiratory sounds at the proximal end of the tube. Foods to be utilized in nasal feeding are the same as those for gastric or duodenal feeding.

GASTRIC GAVAGE (ORAL GAVAGE).

Gastric gavage or forced feeding consists in the introduction of fluid foods, as milk, raw eggs, beef juice, beef extracts, etc., into the stomach, by way of the mouth, through a stomach or duodenal tube. Refer to Fluid Foods, Soft Foods and Foods for Duodenal Tube Feeding.

Gastric and nasal gavage are the methods of choice in feeding unconscious. In these patients the procedure is not difficult to accomplish. It is equally essential in gastric and in nasal gavage to be sure that the introduced tube has entered the esophagus and not the larynx.

In gastric gavage the jaws must be kept open. This may be accomplished by the use of a mouth gag or roller bandage. In children the introduction of a finger, posterior to the molar teeth, will serve as an efficient gag.

The tube to be introduced, if the feedings are to be periodic and not continuous, should be the regulation stomach tube with permanently affixed rubber funnel or supplementary glass funnel. When removing the tube it should be withdrawn rapidly in order not to excite subsequent vomiting. Frequently, it is advisable to wash the stomach with a normal saline or 5 per cent bicarbonate of soda solution prior to introducing the feeding. This is particularly essential in the presence of a gastric retention or hypersecretion. At times the introduction of a duodenal tube for a continuous period of a week or more may be necessary in order to increase weight or to maintain body nutrition. In cases of anorexia nervosa, and other types of neurasthenia, this procedure has proved to be of value. The dryness and irritation of the posterior oro-pharynx may often be offset by the periodic deglutition of a dram of equal parts of glycerin and lemon juice or the sucking of some glycerin-impregnated lozenge.

Naturally, in the periodic introduction into the stomach of the duodenal tube, the implement should be removed after each feeding. In those cases in which the tube is retained in place throughout the course of several feedings, it is essential to wash the tube by the introduction of tap water or saline solution after each feeding, to insure cleanliness. It is also necessary to clamp the proximal end of the tube in order to avoid syphonage.

DUODENAL FEEDINGS.

Duodenal and jejunal feedings are introduced through a duodenal tube. This tube may be of several recognized varieties: The Russell, Einhorn, Levine or Twiss tube. Each of these tubes has

its advocates and its critics. In the writer's experience the T tube appears to be more free of criticism than any of the others mentioned. This tube, with a slightly larger bore than the average, has appended, distal to a modified bucket, an additional length of rubber tubing, at the end of which is attached a solid ball. The ball acts as a protractor in introducing the tube through the pylorus. Additionally, the fenestrations in the modified bucket are of such caliber as to allow ready egress of the food particles. Patients who have experienced several types of tubes claim that it is easier

FOODS FOR DUODENAL TUBE FEEDING.

Acid milks	Fruit purées
Albumen fruit juices	Glucose (10% solution)
Albumen water (1 or 2 whites of eggs to glass of water)	Honey
Barley water	Karo
Beef juice	Klim
Bemax	Lactose (10 to 20% solution)
Black coffee	Maple syrup
Bouillon and broth	Malted milk
Butter	Milk, cow's or goat's
Buttermilk	Olive oil
Cereal gruels	Ovaltine
Chocolate beverage	Peptone solution (20 to 40%)
Clear and cream soups	Peptonized milk
Cocoa beverage	Protein Hydrolysate
Cod-liver oil	Salt
Cream	Strained soups
Dextri-Maltose	Sugar
Dryco	Tea, clear
Eggs (raw)	Vegetable juices
Fruit juices	Vegetable purées

swallow. Its passage through the pylorus is quicker than with the other tubes. It is readily adapted to duodenal intubation under fluoroscopic control. This tube is not apt to regurgitate into the stomach following its passage through the pylorus. The materials are non-corrosive and readily cleansed; this is an important feature in continuous feedings. The tubing is calibrated to indicate the area reached distal to the incisor teeth; in rotation gastric cardia, greater curvature, pylorus and duodenum (ampulla of Vater).

The technique to be observed is that the patient should swallow the bucket as a piece of food. It should be well lubricated and preferably ice-cold. After the tube is passed into the stomach, the patient should recline on the right side in order to facilitate the passage of the tube through the pylorus. The position of the bucket can be ascertained by having the patient swallow a small quantity of milk or water, and if the same is promptly returned upon aspira-

it is positive proof that the bucket is still in the stomach. The most satisfactory confirmation of the position of the tube is accomplished by fluoroscopic examination.

The foods which may be introduced through the tube in nasal and gavage and duodenal feeding are dependent primarily upon the purpose for which the feeding is indicated. In tube feeding for gastric and duodenal ulcer, reference should be made to those foods suggested by Einhorn. Otherwise, as is the case with the Einhorn feedings, the foods should be liquid in type and of an easily digestible nature. The following foods (pp. 197-198) are recommended.

All food in solid form must be puréed and strained, and milk or water diluent added to make proper consistency for passage through the tube. Many commercial firms offer excellent canned, puréed or strained cereals, vegetables and fruits, which will obviate much household labor.

It is customary to make combinations of the noted food items, depending upon volumetric and caloric necessities. Alcohol and caffeine (in the form of coffee) are at times indicated. The manipulation and combination of these foods, to accomplish the desired purpose, places the responsibility upon the attending physician. The caloric yield *per diem* can readily be calculated, and the volumetric intake can be restricted or amplified as desired. Refer to Appendix for Food Analyses.

The introduction of a diet too high in carbohydrates is not indicated, as the customary oral digestion is self-evidently absent. Hence, the addition of too much carbohydrate may produce symptoms toward intestinal symptoms.

TUBE FEEDING SCHEDULE.*

As outlined the feedings contain approximately 2800 Calories and 60 grams of protein. Minerals and vitamins are adequate. If a larger caloric intake is required, it may be obtained by the addition of sugar (sucrose, glucose, or lactose) to any feeding.

Sixty ounces of fluid foods is considered the daily minimum. If tolerated, 100 ounces and upward should be given. It is expected that 1 to 2 pints of water will be taken every twenty-four hours.

Fluids should be warmed before administration. The tube is to be washed after each feeding with 1 or 2 ounces of water.

The amount of each feeding is to be charted.

Feedings.

8 A.M.	Milk, 8 ounces Cream, 2 ounces Cereal gruel, 4 ounces
10 A.M.	Milk, 8 ounces Orange juice, 4 ounces Egg, 1

* As used at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital.

12 NOON.	Milk, 8 ounces Cream, 2 ounces Puréed vegetable 4 ounces Pinch of salt
2 P.M.	Milk, 8 ounces Cream, 2 ounces Cereal gruel, 4 ounces
6 P.M.	Milk, 8 ounces Cream, 2 ounces Puréed vegetable or fruit, 4 ounces
8 P.M.	Milk, 12 ounces Cream, 2 ounces Cocoa paste, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce
10 P.M.	Milk, 8 ounces Cream, 2 ounces Cereal gruel, 4 ounces
2 A.M.	Milk, 8 ounces Orange juice, 4 ounces Egg, 1

FAT-POOR GASTRIC-TUBE DIET.

The author has had several occasions to institute continuous gastric gavage in cases of anorexia associated with fat intolerance. The following dietary regimen was successfully maintained in each instance:

8.30 A.M.	Farina cooked in milk, strained Peptonized milk added to bring total to 10 ounces Egg-whites, 5 Dextri-Maltose No. 1, 1 ounce
12.30 P.M.	Pureed prunes, 4 ounces Peptonized milk, 6 ounces Egg-whites, 3 Dextri-Maltose No. 1, 1 ounce Tomato juice, 1 ounce
4.30 P.M.	Cereal feeding as at 8.30 A.M.
8.30 P.M.	Feeding as at 12.30 P.M., using pureed carrots or peas in place of prunes and omitting the tomato juice
11.30 P.M.	Farina, 12 ounces Peptonized milk, 8 ounces Egg Dextri-Maltose No. 1, 1 ounce

NOTE. — From this sample it can be readily seen that the further infiltration of properly selected liquid or soft food items will increase the caloric intake when demanded. The salt should not exceed

el teaspoon each day. Excess salt alters the tissue osmotic pressure to such a degree as to produce uncomfortable symptoms. The largest volume should be given at the last feeding. Refer to *Notes for Duodenal Tube Feeding*.

NOTE.—A word of caution is suggested referable to the technique of duodenal or gastric-tube feeding. The material introduced should be slightly above body temperature. The rate of introduction should be slow in order to obviate overdistention of the duodenum or stomach. The fat content cannot be excessive, due to the fact that introduction into the duodenum may result in gall-bladder and biliary spasm. This is particularly prone to occur in the presence of hepatic derangements. Often the mere presence of the tube (a foreign body) in the duodenum may cause spasmodic pain or its migration into the stomach. The administration of belladonna in some form will often forestall this occurrence. The bucket should not be allowed to rest on the greater curvature. The markings on the duodenal tube indicate the relative position of the tip when *in situ*.

FISTULAR FEEDINGS.

This form of supplementary feeding is to be used when obstruction occurs in the course of the gastro-intestinal tract. The common obstructions are malignant and benign stenoses of the pharynx, esophagus, stomach, pylorus, etc. As a rule, in the presence of these conditions, surgery has intervened, and a permanent opening is made into the stomach or jejunum for the purpose of feeding.

The method of nutrition through this direct opening is by means of a rectal or duodenal tube and funnel. The food items of choice are poured into the funnel, and hence directly into the hollow organ. The same precautions are to be observed in fistular feedings as are observed under gastric gavage and duodenal feedings, with common modifications. Naturally, due to the increased caliber of the opening utilized, food of thicker consistency may be used. In this case a greater caloric yield can be obtained from a smaller volume. The preceding statements are equally applicable to *jejunal fistula*, with the exception that fats in this latter instance should not too freely augment the diet. In all fistular feedings the patient is likely to complain of a dryness of the mouth and throat. This can be allayed by chewing gum, glycerin-base lozenges or finely crushed ice, the melted water from which should be expectorated.

The administration of a diet too high in carbohydrate is prone to produce intestinal distention. This is probably due in part to the relative absence of salivary digestion.

As referred to in other portions of this volume, it is important to remember that feeding of broths and meat extractives yields little or no nutritive value. They only supply the body with a gastric acid stimulant, purins, mineral salts and—what is primary—water.

MURPHY DRIP.

By far, the most useful and satisfactory form of rectal nourishment is obtained by the use of the Murphy drip. This consists of a gravity drop method of introducing a designated solution into the lower bowel. In this way, without overloading the intestines, it is possible to furnish the body with 1 pint or more of water together with some nutrition.

The nutrient element of choice is glucose. Sufficient glucose is dissolved in ordinary tap water to make a 5 per cent solution. This is allowed to constantly drip through a special mechanism at the proximal end of the tubing. The distal end is inserted into the rectum for a distance of 8 to 10 inches. The drip may be either continuous or for the duration of a pint, after which a rest period is observed. The glucose solution should be kept warm, and an initial flow be established at about 20 drops per minute. This should be increased to 40 drops per minute, depending upon the tolerance of the patient. Too rapid dripping will often result in expulsion. The same interfering factors in the form of rectal pathology as noted in nutrient enemata affect the efficiency of the Murphy drip, but to a lesser degree. It is advisable to eliminate the air column in the process of using the Murphy drip the same as is observed in administering nutritive enemata. Normal saline solution offers the most expedient agent by which body tissue may be supplied with a fluid of no caloric value.

At best, the rectal administration of nutrients or fluids is sadly inefficient when compared with the oral, subdermal or parenteral avenues of introduction.

The routine or thoughtless administration of fluids or nutrients artificially to a patient capable of taking these elements by the ordinary avenue, should be heartily condemned.

PART II.

THE DIETETIC MANAGEMENT OF DISEASES

DISEASES AND THEIR DIETS.

Introduction.—The administration of food to the patient should be as important a rôle in the armamentarium of the practising physician as the apothecary prescription.

The recent trend has been to place less faith in drugs than heretofore and to curtail their use. A review of the therapeutic recommendations of the past shows certain drugs, once considered specific, have now been discarded. With the diminished importance of drugs in treating diseases, it is obvious that feeding in sickness becomes more important.

The physician should be able to prescribe feeding with definite knowledge of the presenting factors. Such accurate diet prescription necessitates a comprehensive knowledge of physiology, chemistry and pathology, together with practical dietetic information. The administration of food and its fate in the human body are synonymous with the much misused term metabolism.

Metabolism is derived from the Greek, meaning "change." It is defined as the sum of all physical and chemical processes by which living and organic substance is produced and maintained. It is classed under this term metabolism, which in turn is divided into the process of building and the process of destruction. The former is called *anabolism* (from the Greek, meaning "constructive change") and the latter *catabolism* (from the Greek, meaning "destructive change"). The genus nomenclature applicable to both these processes is metabolism.

Food is any substance which when ingested yields energy of anabolic character or contributes to physiologic maintenance.

Diet is a specified amount and type of food intended for a given purpose. A basic diet is the minimum amount of food consistent with the maintenance of the various factors of health.

Foods may be divided into six classes, namely, carbohydrates, proteins, salts, vitamins and water.

Four of these have been proved essential for proper metabolic function. A deficiency in any of these specific elements produces a readily demonstrable symptom-complex. On the other hand, abnormal accumulations of any of these components likewise produce physical entities.

The establishment of the proper diet in a specific case depends on a number of factors:

An understanding of the pathologic condition presented.

A knowledge of the physiologic derangement which would render a normally balanced diet inadvisable.

An appreciation on the part of the physician of the individual characteristics of the patient.

An attitude of practical common sense which is often lacking on the part of the prescriber.

As we abhor symptomatic drug therapy, so do we dislike symptomatic diet therapy. Nevertheless, there are many indications in the practice of medicine when symptomatic diets must be instituted for the maintenance of life and health.

It is intelligible that the prescription of a specific diet for individuals suffering from the same disease is impossible. Any diet based on sound physiologic principles, will *in toto* be found applicable only to a minority of cases. It is essential, however, for the physician to have some basic outline from which specific modifications can be made.

Diet has become better recognized as a factor in the practice of medicine, due to the better understanding of foods and their potentialities. Time devoted to dietetic study has been well repaid by the clinical results observed.

In these days of propagation of fads and fancies the realm of dietetics has not been left unexploited. It is difficult for the practitioner to evaluate the various food fads and diets which are repeatedly coming to his attention.

A working hypothesis, applicable to dietetics, patterned after that of the famous Koch, is herewith presented.

"The proper attitude to assume in reference to any newly developed diet is to check its principles against sound, known physiologic demands. When these are fulfilled by any new regimen, and when such factors as palatability and avoidance of monotony are accomplished, together with successful demonstration of clinical response under competent observation, then such a dietary is worthy of institution and commendation."

Therapeutic diets should entail the least possible modification of the normal ration. Each should be thought of in terms of specific variation. If the patient readily comprehends the exact nature of the modification, intelligent coöperation can be secured. The reducing diet, for instance, must be adequate in every particular except calories. Other diets involve restriction of salt, water, fiber, sugar, protein, etc., while still others require that these same items be consumed in more than average amounts. The physiologic penalties of the restriction or "forced" feeding must be taken into account.

though a monotonous and most uninteresting diet may be used so as to be adequate according to present standards, it is desirable to employ a wide variety of foods wherever practicable. Expanding knowledge of the part played by vitamins in the diet resulted in much emphasis upon these factors. Munsell (1940) issued a timely suggestion in this regard:

Give very careful attention to sources of vitamin B₁ in the diet. It is more difficult to obtain an adequate amount of this vitamin than any of the others. It is probably the one in which American people are most deficient. Take special care to conserve the vitamin B₁ in foods during cooking. Many of the foods that contain abundance of vitamin B₁ are cooked before being eaten and next to vitamin C, vitamin B₁ is the vitamin most likely to be lost when foods are cooked or canned. The precautions necessary to conserve vitamin B₁ will conserve other vitamins as well."

At all times it is essential to consider the economic status of the patient. Except in very unusual circumstances it is possible to adapt therapeutic diets to the presenting need. Adequate low-cost diets are analyzed on page 598. Competent hospital dietitians, public health organizations, relief agencies and local committees are prepared to cooperate in intelligent and humane provision for the therapeutic care of the sick.

ACIDOSIS (NON-DIABETIC KETOSIS).

Discussion.—All physicians are confronted with acidosis of non-diabetic origin—one in which the ketone bodies, together with the acetone breath, are prominent. Acidosis *per se* is but a symptom of diabetes or some other underlying disorder. Attention must be directed to this condition in order to hasten convalescence and at the same time alleviate the presenting symptoms.

Basically, the cause of all ketosis is directly or indirectly one of starvation. Whether this starvation is a result of diabetes, vomiting, rheumatism or anorexia, etc., must be fully considered in the manipulation of a dietary régime. The old adage, "Fat burns in a carbohydrate flame," is still true. The interpretation is that fats are properly combusted in the human body when sufficient carbohydrate is not present. This well-known fact pertains both to the exogenous fat-carbohydrate ratio and to the endogenous balance.

In general, the diet indicated for ketosis is fat-free and high-carbohydrate and must vary materially with the underlying condition. It would be as unwise to prescribe coarse vegetables in the presence of continuous vomiting as it would be foolish to prescribe baby food for a fully capable stomach and intestines.

The selected foods are cereals, tubers and any combination of foods in which fat is omitted or markedly limited, and to which sugar has been added. This includes desserts, certain types of cakes, puddings, fruits and fruit juices. In addition, stewed

fruits, marmalades, jams and candy, particularly of the hard variety or soft gum drops, are especially useful when tolerated. Commercial fat-free butter may be permitted for palatability.

Though the presenting case may not be of diabetic origin, it has been found useful at times to prescribe insulin in conjunction with a high-carbohydrate diet.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit

Whole grain cereal, cooked or prepared, with milk and sugar

Toast or rolls with marmalade or honey

Coffee with milk and sugar

Luncheon:

Choice: potatoes, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti, vermicelli

Cooked vegetable

Salad with lemon juice

Bread with jam

Fresh or stewed fruit

Tea with lemon

Dinner:

Vegetable or fruit juice

Lean meat or fish

Potato

Cooked vegetable

Bread with jelly

Choice: fruit, cornstarch, rice, tapioca pudding

Coffee with milk and sugar

ACNE ROSACEA AND ACNE VULGARIS.

Refer to pages 287 and 288.

ADDISON'S DISEASE.

JOSEPH EIDELSLER, M. D.

Discussion.—Whereas there is no specific diet for this condition, the very frequent incidence of gastric juice deficiency with associated bowel looseness or definite diarrhea must receive some dietary consideration.

The diet recommended should be one to increase gastric acidity and at the same time not be too high in roughage. The latter suggestion is based on the fact that in diarrhea the intestines are already highly irritable and the taking of roughage will tend further to aggravate this condition.

The rôle of vitamin C has been proved efficacious in numerous instances.

The oral administration of dilute hydrochloric acid will change the gastric secretion and indirectly aid in checking the loose bowels.

of the chief symptoms of patients suffering from Addison's disease is weakness. The addition of extra protein to the diet will greatly offset this manifestation.

It has been proved that a diet high in sodium serves admirably to maintain the body tissue fluid. The following menus are so arranged as to contain a large amount of sodium chloride in addition to meeting other requirements.

Utilize salt as generously as palatable in food preparation. When appetite permits, use some bread, butter and milk at each meal and between meals. Salted crackers and cheese may also be used between meals. The use of olives, pickles and such relishes contribute to the salt content of the menus.

Diet.—Foods of a bland and alkaline nature which tend to reduce hydrochloric acid content of the stomach. In the event of vomiting, either starvation or a bland diet given in small quantities at frequent intervals may be indicated.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Choice: broiled bacon, ham, creamed chipped beef, creamed salt fish
Bread or rolls with butter
Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Consommé or quillon or consommé with salted crackers
Choice: meat, fish, egg, cheese
Choice: potatoes, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti, vermicelli, with butter
Cooked vegetable: beets, string beans, carrots, spinach, squash, tomatoes, peas, with butter
Bread with butter
Stewed fruit
Milk

Dinner:

Olives or pickles
Soup
Meat or fish
Potato with butter
Cooked vegetable
Bread with butter
Choice: stewed fruit, simple pudding, cheese with salted crackers
Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

In the management of vomiting, the diet is the same as for any other form of non-obstructive etiology. Frequently, a dry diet administered in small quantities, in which the carbohydrates are reduced and the fats reduced to a minimum to offset the associated acidosis, has proved beneficial.

Stimulants such as contained in coffee, tea and cocoa may be used to counteract associated weakness. The patient must avoid physical and mental fatigue. Mild acute infections should be attended to *without delay*.

The high-salt diet must be accompanied by ample supplies of water. Forced ingestion of water *per se* is ineffective in preventing development of hemoconcentration in adrenal insufficiency. Insufficient water with a high-salt intake may induce crisis. The diet should be low in potassium. Diets of various potassium contents are presented for judicious use. According to Zwemer and Trunkowski there is also a diminished potassium tolerance in asthenics, not frankly of the Addisonian type. It should be emphasized that if the adrenal glands are normal, restriction of sodium chloride and administration of potassium salts involves no apparent risk, but in severe adrenal insufficiency there is grave danger of collapse.

The administration of desoxycorticosterone esters to patients with Addison's disease causes a retention of sodium and water such that it is not necessary to ingest large quantities of salt. Excessive amounts of this drug lead to the development of hypoproteinemia, marked edema and cardiac insufficiency (Ferrebee *et al.*, 1939).

For the diagnosis of Addison's disease, the procedure of Cutler may be used. The diet shown in Table 20 is followed for three days. On the first day, free ingestion of water is encouraged. On the afternoon of the first day, additional potassium is given in the form of potassium citrate (dose, 42 mg. of the salt per pound).

On the second day the allowance of fluid is 40 cc. per kilogram. During the morning the dose of potassium citrate is repeated.

TABLE 23.—Foods Arranged According to Potassium Content.*

- A. Meats, etc.; B. Vegetables; C. Cereals; D. Fruits; E. Beverages; F. Miscellaneous.
- Group 1. 0.0 to 0.1 per cent K:** A. cheese, oysters; B. okra; C. wheat gluten, white rice; D. blueberries, cranberries, huckleberries, pomegranate, watermelon; E. tea, cider, huckleberry wine, milk (buffalo, human, mare); F. butter, sugar.
- Group 2. 0.1 to 0.2 per cent K:** A. bacon, eggs, round clams; B. asparagus, cucumbers, egg-plant, green peppers, leeks, onions, summer squash, sweet corn; C. bread (rye and white), crackers, farina, hominy, macaroni; D. apples, blackberries, gooseberries, grapefruit, grapes, lemons, oranges, pears, raspberries, strawberries; E. juices of foregoing fruits, buttermilk, cocoanut milk, cream, milk (cow, camel, goat, sheep); F. jellies and jams, vinegar, whey.
- Group 3. 0.2 to 0.3 per cent K:** A. clams (soft, long); B. cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, peas (fresh), radishes, string beans, tomatoes, water cress; C. barley (pearled), corn-meal, millet, whole wheat flour, bread (Boston brown, graham, whole wheat); D. apricots, breadfruit, cantaloupe, cherries, citron, currants, mangoes, muskmelon, peaches, persimmons, plums, whortleberries; E. juices (apricot, cherry, tomato); F. capers, maple syrup, wheat-germ.
- Group 4. 0.3 to 0.4 per cent K:** B. beets, Brussels sprouts, celery, chard, collards (mature), endive, kohlrabi, lettuce, mangold, mushrooms, pumpkin, romaine, rutabagas, turnips, turnip tops, sweet potatoes, winter squash; D. figs, guava, limes, mammees, pineapple, rhubarb; F. cocoanuts, honey, pecans, walnuts.
- Group 5. 0.4 to 0.5 per cent K:** A. caviar, fish, red meats; B. horse-radish, potato truffles; C. barley (whole grain), flour (graham, rye), rye (whole grain), wheat (whole grain); D. bananas; F. dandelion.
- Group 6. 0.5 to 7.3 per cent K:** A. meat peptone, solid meat extract; B. beans, cabbage greens, cow-peas, lentils, Lima beans, lupines, olives, parsnips, spinach; C. cotton, flax, and linseed-meal, wheat bran; D. dried fruits (e.g., currants, figs, peaches, prunes, raisins); E. cocoa; F. almonds, chestnuts, chocolate, dried cocoanut, hazelnuts, molasses, mustard, paprika, peanuts, pepper.

* Ashkins, V., and Zwemer, R. L.: *Jour. Am. Dietet. Assn.*, **14**, 183, 1938.

Sample Menu Containing 1 Gram K

Food.	Grams.	Measure.	Potassium.
<i>Breakfast</i>			
Orange	100	1 weighed with skin	0.177
Farina	20	$\frac{1}{8}$ cup	0.024
Bread (white)	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	14	1 T.	0.0018
Milk	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ glass	0.072
Cream	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ glass	0.063
Sugar	13	1 T.	
<i>Lunch</i>			
Cheese	50	$\frac{1}{5}$ " slice (5 lb. long loaf)	0.045
Macaroni	20	$\frac{1}{5}$ cup	0.026
Sweet corn	100	1 ear, 8" ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	0.113
Blueberries	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ cup	0.051
Bread (white)	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	14	1 T.	0.0018
Cream	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ glass	0.063
<i>Supper</i>			
Egg	50	1	0.070
Asparagus	50	6—5" stalks	0.098
Apple	100	1 small	0.127
Bread (white)	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	14	1 T.	0.0018
Cream	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ glass	0.063

Total: Approx. P. 53, F. 91, C. 150 grams, Cal. 1630. Potassium, 1.0994 grams.

Sample Menu Containing 2 Grams K

Food.	Grams.	Measure.	Potassium.
<i>Breakfast</i>			
Orange juice	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.182
Farina	20	$\frac{1}{8}$ cup	0.024
Eggs	100	2	0.140
Bread (white)	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	14	1 T.	0.0018
Milk	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.143
Cream	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.126
Sugar	13	1 T.	
<i>Lunch</i>			
Cheese	50	$\frac{1}{5}$ " slice (5 lb. loaf)	0.045
Potatoes	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ ($2\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.)	0.214
Carrots	50	$\frac{1}{3}$ cup (drained)	0.123
Blueberries	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ cup	0.051
Bread (white)	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	14	1 T.	0.0018
Milk	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.143
Cream	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ glass	0.063
<i>Supper</i>			
Egg	50	1	0.070
Corn, sweet	100	1 ear, 8" ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	0.113
Summer squash	100	$\frac{5}{16}$ cup	0.150
Peas	100	1 medium	0.132
Bread	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	14	1 T.	0.0018
Milk	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.143
Cream	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ glass	0.063

Total: Approx. P. 74, F. 121, C. 169 grams, Cal. 2060. Potassium, 2.0264 grams.

Sample Menu Containing 4 Grams K

Food.	Grams.	Measure.	Potassium
<i>Breakfast</i>			
Oranges	200	2 weighed with skin	0.354
Corn-meal	20	$\frac{1}{8}$ cup	0.043
Eggs	100	2	0.140
Bacon	20	2 slices ($1\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4}$ ")	0.034
Bread	60	2 slices	0.064
Butter	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ T.	0.0009
Milk	200	1 glass	0.286
Cream	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.126
Dried currants	30	$\frac{1}{8}$ cup	0.262
<i>Dinner</i>			
Meat or fish	50	Slice, $2 \times 2 \times \frac{1}{4}$ "	0.250
Potatoes	100	1 ($2\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.)	0.429
Peas	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ cup	0.285
Tomatoes	100	1 ($2\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.)	0.275
Pears	100	1 medium	0.132
Bread	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ T.	0.0009
<i>Supper</i>			
Meat or fish	50	$2 \times 2 \times \frac{1}{4}$ "	0.250
Carrots	100	$\frac{4}{5}$ cup	0.287
Cauliflower	100	1 cup	0.222
Peaches	100	1 medium	0.214
Bread	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ T.	0.0009
Milk	200	1 glass	0.286

Totals: Approx. P. 86; F. 87; C. 210 grams; Cal. 1970. Potassium, 4.0057 grams.

Sample Menu Containing 6 Grams K

Food.	Grams.	Measure.	Potassium
<i>Breakfast</i>			
Bananas (E.P.)	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c. or $\frac{1}{2}$ large	0.401
Corn-meal	20	$\frac{1}{8}$ cup	0.043
Eggs	100	2	0.140
Bacon	20	2 slices ($1\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4}$ ")	0.034
Bread	60	2 slices	0.064
Butter	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ T.	0.0009
Milk	200	1 glass	0.286
Cream	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	0.126
Dried raisins	50	$\frac{3}{8}$ cup	0.410
<i>Dinner</i>			
Meat or fish	100	$2 \times 2 \times \frac{1}{4}$ "	0.500
Potatoes	100	1 ($2\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.)	0.429
Winter squash	100	$\frac{7}{10}$ cup	0.320
Peas	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ cup	0.285
Peaches	100	1 medium	0.214
Bread	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ T.	0.0009
Milk	200	1 glass	0.286
Dried currants	30	$\frac{1}{8}$ cup	0.262
<i>Supper</i>			
Meat or fish	100	$2 \times 2 \times \frac{1}{4}$ "	0.500
Potatoes	100	1 ($2\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.)	0.429
Turnips	100	$\frac{5}{8}$ cup	0.338
Tomatoes	100	1, $2\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	0.275
Pineapple	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ cup, diced	0.321
Bread	30	1 slice	0.032
Butter	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ T.	0.0009
Milk	200	1 glass	0.286

Totals: Approx. P. 112; F. 110; C. 270 grams; Cal. 2520. Potassium, 6.0157 grams.

On the third day 20 cc. of fluid per kilogram is given before 8 A.M. Urine is collected from 8 A.M. to noon. The test period is terminated at noon with intravenous injection of 1 liter of sterile solution containing 50 grams of glucose, 10 grams of sodium chloride, 5 grams of sodium citrate, and 20 cc. of an active preparation of adrenal hormone. Since this provocative procedure may precipitate a crisis, the latter solution should be in constant readiness during the three days.

The urine output of water is computed and the chloride concentration determined. Normals excrete more water (average 4 cc. per minute) than do those with Addison's disease (average 1 cc. per minute). A concentration of less than 125 mg. Cl per cent is regarded as normal. Values in excess of 225 mg. indicate abnormality of adrenocortical function. Intermediate values are inconclusive and demand a longer salt-deprivation period.

TABLE 24.—Low-salt, High-potassium Diet (Expressed in Grams).*

Items.	Break-fast.	Dinner.	Supper.	K	Na	Cl
Vegetables:						
Canned tomatoes	90	...	0.270	0.010	0.340
Lettuce	10	10	0.060	0.005	0.015
Fruit:						
Oranges	100	...	0.125	0.022	0.004
Orange	100	0.200	0.012	0.006
Grapefruit	100	0.200	0.004	0.005
Banana	100	0.400	0.034	0.125
Vegetables:						
Canned peas	100	0.125	0.013	0.024
Baked potato	100	100	1.000	0.042	0.076
Rad, salt-free	50	30	30	0.110	0.073	0.127
Carrot	150
Water, salt-free	10	10	10	0.003	0.021	0.049
Ham, 20 per cent	25	25	75	0.158	0.044	0.100
Egg	200	0.300	0.102	0.212
Cheese, medium	300	200	...	0.500
Butter	(1)	0.070	0.071	0.053
Beef, lean (weigh before cooking)	75	50	0.465	0.131	0.117
Veal	20	20	20	0.076	0.008	0.002
Total				4.062	0.592	0.949

Cutler, H. H., Power, M. H., and Wilder, R. M.: Jour. Am. Med. Assn., **111**, 1938.

ALCOHOLISM.

Discussion.—The treatment of alcoholism consists, first, in emptying the bowels of any food accumulation. For this purpose saline or medicated enemata or colonic irrigations may be used. Gastric lavage is indicated particularly in the presence of pyloric spasm, gastric hyperacidity or vomiting. Insistence should be placed on the use of large amounts of fluid either by vein or by mouth which will tend to promote renal activity and hasten the elimination of the already absorbed alcohol. 5 per cent glucose in saline to which 100 mg of thiamine chloride has been added should be given intravenously to combat dehydration and acidosis.

Second, the diet should be fluid or semi-fluid and prescribed both frequently and in small quantities. As soon as possible the caloric

value of the food should be raised in order to afford the body abundant nourishment. The diet should predominate in carbohydrate with a diminished fat content. Foods capable of gastric acid stimulation to offset alcoholic deprivation are beneficial.

The question of partial or complete withdrawal of alcohol is one which is subject to much controversy. The author's feeling is that strict, sudden cessation of the offending factor, particularly in chronic alcoholics, is of more harm than benefit.

Typical Menu.

8.00 A.M.	Fruit juice Black coffee <i>or</i> clear tea with sugar
10.30 A.M.	Gruel with milk and sugar
12.00 NOON	Highly seasoned broth <i>or</i> cream soup.
3.00 P.M.	Milk, buttermilk <i>or</i> eggnog
5.30 P.M.	Fruit <i>or</i> vegetable juice Custard, gelatin, junket, ice-cream <i>or</i> sherbet
8.00 P.M.	Hot milk <i>or</i> cocoa

Commonly in chronic alcoholism a gastric hypoacidity ensues. This condition requires a diet similar to that for achylia gastrica. See dietary suggestions under Gastric Hypoacidity.

Since alcohol ingestion intensifies the demand for vitamin B₁, symptoms of thiamin deficiency may be expected in these patients. "Alcoholic insanity" is now believed to be due to lack of vitamin B₁ rather than to alcohol (Williams, Mason and Wilder, 1940). 100 mg. of thiamin hydrochloride should be provided daily for these patients during the acute phase of their illness.

Delirium Tremens.—The treatment of this condition has been discussed by Bowman, Wortis, and Keiser. To combat the dehydration and restore the blood chlorides, capsules containing 2 grams of sodium chloride may be given every four hours. The fluid intake should be 3000 to 4000 cc. per day. A high caloric, high vitamin diet should furnish 3000 to 4000 Calories daily.

ALLERGIC DISEASES.

W. C. SPAIN, M.D.

Discussion.—The most commonly recognized forms of hypersensitiveness in man are bronchial asthma, hay fever, allergic coryza, urticaria, angioneurotic edema, certain forms of allergic dermatitis, of allergic gastro-enteritis, certain forms of purpura, of migraine, and of Meniere's disease. All of these conditions are classified under the designation of "allergy," and are due to contact with the exciting substances, usually protein in nature, by inhalation, by ingestion or by absorption from an infective focus.

With the exception of seasonal hay fever or pollinosis, which is a form of allergic coryza, any of the clinical allergic conditions mentioned may be manifestations of food sensitiveness. Correctly considered allergic are the acute gastro-intestinal symptoms so easily mistaken for those of a surgical abdomen, with nausea, vomiting,

ention, epigastric or abdominal pain, diarrhea and collapse, the disturbances following the ingestion of a specific food excitant. Widespread rash or asthma is often an accompaniment. Vague, ill-defined, chronic abdominal complaints, such as bad breath, anorexia, constipation, dull abdominal pains, have also been classified as allergic. Types of epilepsy, arthritis, acute bladder disturbances, uterine irregularities, herpes simplex, gastric ulcer, epiritis, pruritus ani, fever, malaise, vertigo, malnutrition and many other complaints have been classed by various investigators under this heading.

The majority of cases of food sensitiveness occurs in early life. In a study of 200 cases of bronchial asthma it was found by cutaneous tests that only individuals of three years or younger developed symptoms from foods alone. After that age the inhalant substances such as pollens, dusts, feathers, etc., gradually replaced food sensitiveness, so that by the age of ten to twelve years the majority of patients had lost the food reactions clinically, although the skin sensitiveness often remained. In only 5 per cent of adult asthmatic patients was it possible to demonstrate a food sensitiveness as the sole offending factor.

The explanation for this sensitization to foods early in life is not known. Formerly it was thought that this condition was due to a defective gastro-intestinal membrane which allowed unaltered protein to be absorbed into the circulating blood, thus sensitizing the individual. That such absorption occurs normally, however, has been shown by several investigators, chiefly by Du Bois, Schlosser and Anderson, who found strong proof of the absorption of unaltered protein in the blood of non-sensitive infants, and by Brunner and Walzer who showed that unaltered protein could be normally absorbed into the circulation within one-half hour of ingestion of the food.

The food or foods causing attacks vary in different individuals although a constant in any particular patient. Any article or articles of diet may be the exciting factors—eggs, milk, cereals, meats, fish, vegetables, fruits, spices, nuts or beverages. The condition of specificity, so characteristic of the allergic state, renders it impossible to devise a diet which would be correct for the great majority of sufferers. In the consideration of any allergic patient, the reactions to the various foods become a highly individual problem, to be studied in detail.

The methods used in determining sensitiveness to foods are (1) the history, (2) the cutaneous tests and (3) the clinical tests.

History.—An accurate history is of great importance since it often furnishes the chief means of ascertaining the offending substances. Several points should be particularly emphasized. First, the establishment of the allergic nature of the attacks, since it is in this condition that the cutaneous tests are of value and the results of treatment more likely to be successful. The presence particularly of bronchial asthma, hay fever, allergic coryza, or dermatitis in the patient or in the antecedent or collateral family history, furnishes

strong evidence of the inherited and hence, allergic, nature of a food reaction.

A second point of importance is a description of the attack, the frequency, intensity and duration, and relation to meals. The attacks may be acute or explosive in nature, with periods of normal behavior between paroxysms, their occurrence depending on the occasional contacts with the specific excitant, or they may be cumulative, being due, not to foods infrequently eaten but to the gradual storing in the body of toxic products from some food substance or substances daily present in the diet, but apparently non-irritating until the limit of tolerance has been reached.

Any periodicity or regularity of the attacks should be observed and their relation to daily, weekly or monthly routine of the patient noted. In a young woman who had suffered for years from severe headache each Monday, the causative factor, egg, was established not by skin test, which was negative, but by discovering that only at Sunday breakfast were eggs eaten. In the acute type of attack the reaction time between ingestion of the food excitant and the appearance of the symptoms varies in different individuals, from a few seconds to several days, a condition which adds to the difficulty of diagnosis. Generally, however, the more acute the attack, the shorter the reaction time.

Symptoms of utmost gravity, dyspnea, cyanosis and collapse, have been known to develop in egg-sensitive children the moment a minute amount of egg has come into contact with the lingual and buccal mucosa long before ingestion could possibly occur. Indeed, actual contact with the excitant is unnecessary for the development of symptoms in exquisitely sensitive cases. The odor emanating from such foods, as fish, celery, or onion has alone been sufficient to produce, in extremely susceptible persons, violent asthmatic and coryzal attacks. A patient has been seen so sensitive to fish, that merely passing a fish market would cause severe attacks of asthma. Another patient would suffer severely from asthma whenever entering a dining room where celery was on the table, or whenever driving past celery fields, even during non-pollenating seasons. There are also food cases so exquisitely sensitive that mere contact of the food with the unbroken skin will produce severe symptoms of asthma, urticaria or dermatitis. A physician working in the Asthma Clinic at the Post-Graduate Hospital, New York City, is so sensitive to egg that rubber gloves are worn whenever the testing of egg extract upon a patient is necessary. Many cases, especially in kitchen workers, have been recorded where it has been necessary to peel potatoes or onions under water to prevent reactions.

Even in the less explosive types of food intolerance where the reaction time is longer and the symptoms more chronic in type, a close questioning may reveal the causative factor especially in children, where the history of an aversion to a particular food or foods is often highly significant. Such a dislike may frequently indicate the specific excitant, although the child's attitude, Nature's protective effort, may be interpreted by the parent or physician

merely evidence of a whim or fancy. There are many asthmatic and undernourished children who, sensitive to milk or egg, are forced to take these foods because they are "good for them," whereas in reality these substances are the very causes of the complaints. A third point of importance in the history is the consideration in detail of the patient's usual diet; the amount of milk consumed daily; the number of eggs; the varieties of meat, fish, fruits, vegetables and nuts; the amount of chocolate and cheese; the use of coffee and tea. Any food or beverage taken intemperately should be suspected. A young woman, suffering from chronic urticaria, coryza and loss of weight, was found to be drinking 2 quarts of milk daily. Cutaneous tests were negative to milk but by simply removing it from the diet she lost her urticaria and coryza and gained rapidly in weight. In another instance large quantities of chocolate drink were being given a child with eczema. Removal of this substance, negative by cutaneous test, cleared the condition. In chronic food sensitizations such as urticaria and migraine where the history and cutaneous tests offer little aid, it is of benefit to have the patient keep a complete diary of his food intake, which can be studied in relation to the attacks. Frequently in this way only, a clue to the causative factors can be obtained.

Cutaneous Tests.—The importance of cutaneous testing as an aid in determining the diagnosis in allergic conditions is well established, and the procedures employed, both intracutaneous and scarification methods, are too well known to warrant describing them here. In this connection, however, several important facts should be emphasized: (1) positive food reactions are most frequently cited in those cases presenting in themselves or in their family history of asthma, hay fever, allergic coryza or allergic eczema; (2) negative food reactions upon test, with positive clinical histories are common, particularly in urticaria, angioneurotic edema, migraine and the vague clinical forms mentioned above; (3) many false positive reactions are obtained which cannot be verified and cannot be explained. The reasons for the negative reactions are only partially known. Cooking frequently may so alter foods that reacting with the unheated protein is unsuccessful. Further, the mechanism of food sensitiveness may differ in the different types of food cases. The time element or incubation period is very important; unless the time elapsing between ingestion of the foods and the appearance of symptoms is thirty minutes or less, negative results by test usually occur. It is illogical to expect an immediate positive wheal upon test with the extract of a food that in the patient requires hours to cause apparent symptoms.

Clinical Tests With Foods.—In its simplest form, such clinical tests consist of removing from the patient's diet as completely as possible those foods found positive by skin tests as well as those implicated in the patient's history or strongly suspected by him even in the presence of a negative skin test. Thus it may be necessary to remove a number of foods at the same time, a feasible procedure except in the cases of infants and the elderly, where the simultaneous

avoidance of such important foods as egg and milk should not be attempted. If the patient becomes symptom free, the foods removed may be added to the diet singly, with at least three days for observation between additions.

If such simple procedures are unsuccessful, they may be barred from the menu on purely empirical grounds, those foods listed below known to be the chief offenders both because of high incidence and production of severe symptoms. Modern methods of processing and blending food substances often render perplexing and difficult the identification of foods which are the constituents. Therefore it becomes highly important for the physician to describe to the patient carefully and in detail, the foods and food substances to be avoided.

The Chief Offending Foods.—While experience has shown that all foods must be suspected as excitants in food hypersensitiveness there are several others more prominent as regards both incidence and ability to produce clinical symptoms. Investigators generally agree that these are egg, wheat, milk, fish and shellfish, meats, chocolate, and nuts.

Egg is probably the most important of all foods in this connection, particularly in infancy and in early childhood, not only because sensitizations then are comparatively frequent but also because the symptoms produced may be most severe. Not only asthma, coryza, urticaria and migraine are often caused by this excitant, but also infantile eczema and allergic dermatitis, both by ingestion and by contact with the unbroken skin, as previously noted. Such egg intolerance can apparently be inherited, as in the family described by La Roche and Richet, where gastro-intestinal symptoms from egg were known in four generations. Sensitiveness to chicken meat frequently is obtained in egg-sensitive cases.

EGG-POOR DIET

Avoid:

Eggs: fresh, frozen, powdered, cooked in any form.

Egg-containing foods: such as

Prepared flour mixes for home cooking

Pancakes, griddle cakes, pastries

Waffles, doughnuts, pretzels

Macaroons, meringues, frostings

Cakes, cookies, unless known to be egg-free

Salad dressing, unless known to be egg-free

Ice cream and sherbets, unless known to be egg-free

Custards, cream candies, fondants

Marshmallows

Breads with glazed crusts

Sausages, croquettes, meat cakes containing egg as binder

Foods breaded with egg mixture

Poultry, especially chicken

Where egg is to be avoided in the diet the difficulties are many, due to the numerous ways in which it is employed. Even the breast-fed infant may obtain egg through the mother's milk. Egg-white is used as a "binder" in a variety of water-color paints known

"Tempera." A case is recorded where eczema from egg developed from this source.

Wheat may cause symptoms of asthma, coryza, migraine, urticaria and eczema not only by ingestion and contact, as does egg, also by inhalation. Bakers, wall-paperers, grain dealers and others have been described as cases with such wheat sensitization, eczema and coryza being the usual symptoms. Such inhalant cases are difficult to treat successfully and frequently a change in occupation may be necessary. A patient may have any one or any combination of symptoms as a result of wheat contact. The other cereals, rice, barley, corn, rye and oats, are similar in action to wheat. Buckwheat, although botanically unrelated, is included here. Where wheat or other cereals must be eliminated from the diet it should be recalled that coffee substitutes are chiefly cereal.

WHEAT-POOR DIET

Avoid:

Wheat, whole wheat, cracked wheat flour in breads, waffles, griddle cakes, doughnuts, muffins, pastries, pies, cakes, crackers, spaghetti, macaroni, noodles, pretzels, zwieback
 Rye bread, unless known to be wheat-free
 Corn bread, unless known to be wheat-free
 Oat bread, unless known to be wheat-free
 Bran bread
 Breakfast cereals, dry or cooked, containing wheat, whole wheat, farina or bran
 Gravies, stews, sauces containing wheat
 Prepared foods prepared with wheat
 Coffee substitutes containing wheat, beer, ale
 Prepared meats, as sausages, frankfurters, meat loaf, croquettes made with wheat

Milk is an important offender particularly in infants and children. Symptoms identical in variety with those caused by egg and wheat are found, although rarely produced except by ingestion. Of the milk proteins, lactalbumin is the most important as an excitant. Since heat destroys this fraction, boiled milk can be tolerated by many milk-sensitive individuals. Other milk-sensitive patients, however, must avoid all forms of milk and milk products, such as cheese, butter, buttermilk, cream, condensed, evaporated, powdered and malted milks. Chocolate products often contain milk. Cream pies, custards, ice-creams and varieties of candies often must be eliminated from the diet. In infants, milk substitutes as So-Bee, goat's milk, fresh or canned, may be used.

MILK-POOR DIET

Avoid:

Milk, buttermilk, cream, as such, and in prepared foods, as ice cream, milk chocolate, custards, gravies, cream sauces, soups, chowders
 Prepared flour mixes for home cooking
 Malted milk, hot chocolate or cocoa prepared with milk
 Cheese
 Evaporated, powdered, condensed milk (bakery products, as pies, breads, cakes, containing small amounts of cooked milk can often be tolerated)
 Butter can usually be permitted

Fish and shellfish are notorious as causing violent urticaria, angioneurotic edema, asthma and acute gastro-intestinal attack although other clinical forms are found. In very sensitive cases severe symptoms can be produced by inhalation, as in the fish sensitive case previously mentioned.

SEAFOOD-FREE DIET

Avoid:

Fish and shellfish: fresh, canned, smoked, pickled; fish liver oils and concentrates in vitamin preparations
Fish and shellfish stews, bisques, broths, soups, salads, hors d'oeuvres, caviar, roe
Avoid licking labels, which often contain a fish glue adhesive.

Nuts are excitants chiefly by ingestion, causing severe coughing attacks, asthma and skin lesions. Some of the most violent and sudden attacks of asthma have been produced by members of this group, particularly almond, brazil nut, walnut and pecan. Coconut, hazel nut, pistachio and chestnut are less frequent offenders. Peanut is usually classed here, although it is a legume and more closely related to the peas, beans and lentils. There is a common factor present among the nuts, seeds and legumes so that sensitization may exist in nut sensitive cases also to mustard, beans, peas, cottonseed and flaxseed.

NUT-POOR DIET

Avoid:

Nuts of all types, also peanuts (a legume) and cottonseed meal in health and laxative breads
Nut crumbs on cookies, cake icings, ice cream
Candies containing nuts
Salad oils, lard substitutes, margarines made of coconut, cottonseed or peanut oils (many are so made - inquire of the grocer); olive oil permitted
Individuals highly sensitive to nuts are often allergic to seeds, such as cottonseed flaxseed, mustard (by external application in poultices, as well as when ingested as foods), beans, peas. Legumes, such as peas, beans, lentils, are often allergenic factors in the patient sensitive to nuts, but some patients tolerate legumes, such as peanuts, despite high degrees of nut sensitivity.

Chocolate and cocoa are frequent offenders, causing coryza, asthma and urticaria chiefly.

Meats, particularly pork, beef and fowl are occasional causes of clinical symptoms. As previously noted, egg-sensitive cases are frequently allergic in a lesser degree to fowl. It should be remembered that in pork-sensitive cases not only bacon, ham and sausage must be considered, but lard in foods prepared with this shortening.

Vegetables are infrequent causes of allergic reactions except for a small group including celery, onion, white potato, green pea and beans. Asthma, coryza, urticaria, angioneurotic edema and gastro-intestinal symptoms are among the clinical conditions described as developing, not only by ingestion, but by inhalation, as in the case of the celery-sensitive patient previously described, and by contact with the unbroken skin as in the case of those described

sensitive to potato peel. Dermatitis has been reported not only from handling raw string beans and raw tomatoes, but also from contact with the leaves and stems of the plants.

Fruits are generally of minor importance as allergic excitants, although clinical reactions to apple, pineapple, peach, pear, strawberry, melons and the citrus fruits are fairly common. Orange is probably the fruit most frequently responsible for symptoms in children and infants. As in the case of the vegetables, the attacks of asthma, coryza, urticaria or angioneurotic edema, eczema and gastro-intestinal upsets may occur from inhalation and contact with the skin, as well as from ingestion. Frequently with vegetables, as potato and tomato, as well as with fruits as apple, peach or pear, the rind, skin or seeds may be the offender, the remainder of the vegetable or fruit being harmless to the patient.

Spices and the essential oils used as flavorings, such as oils of bergamot, spearmint, peppermint, sassafras, clove, etc., must be mentioned. Mustard, black pepper and vanilla are important excitants in this group. Not only by ingestion but by cutaneous contact in the form of plasters, mustard may be a disturbing factor. As previously mentioned, mustard sensitiveness is frequently associated with sensitiveness to nuts and to seeds such as cottonseed and flaxseed. These latter two substances must also be considered as foods, since the former is used commonly as a salad oil and as a shortening, and the latter as a laxative in some health breads and breakfast foods. In cottonseed and flaxseed sensitive cases it has been claimed that the source of the excitant may be the milk from infants fed upon these substances.

When the patient becomes symptom free, the foods which have been banned may be added singly with at least three days between additions. A return of symptoms will usually implicate the latest addition. Unless successful by the end of three weeks, the restriction should be abandoned. In this case a more rigid elimination procedure is indicated.

Semistarvation Diet.—This more drastic contraction of the diet may be indicated where the foregoing diets fail, or where the acute nature of the patient's symptoms (as often in urticaria) demand prompt action. The patient is then placed upon a semistarvation diet as follows:

Days: 1-3	Days: 4-5	Day: 6	Day: 7
Boiled rice	Add:	Add:	Add:
Butter	Carrots	Beef or Lamb	Grapefruit
Weak Tea	Beets		Prunes
Cane Sugar	Lettuce		Pears
Salt			
Lemon			

The patient is not limited as to the amount of boiled rice he may eat.

The weak tea is limited to four cups daily and the remaining substances to a quantity sufficient to render the rice more acceptable. There is no limit to the amounts of the several other foods added gradually. Ascorbic acid 1000 mg. daily should be given. If

This diet has been described by me in "Office Immunology," Sulzberger and I, Office Immunology, Year Book Publishers, Chicago, 1947.

improvement does not occur on the rice diet specified for the first three days, it may be supplanted by milk, butter, baked potato and salt, either at once or after an interval of expanded diet which may be necessary due to the patient's weakened condition. At the end of the seventh day other foods may be added cautiously, returning to the last the chief offending foods described previously such as milk, egg, chocolate, nuts and seafood. Each newly added item of diet should be followed by a three day period of observation. If no symptoms appear, another item may be then added in the same manner.

Food Diary.—To avoid confusion and uncertainty, a careful record must be kept by meal, breakfast, lunch, dinner, of foods eaten together with a list of those eaten between meals. At the end of each day's entry, a note should be made of the severity and exact time of appearance of any symptoms for the preceding twenty-four hours. A relationship may thus be established between the foods ingested and the symptoms which have appeared.

The elimination diets of Rowe are based upon the trial and error procedure, the patient being placed upon a severely restricted diet until it is proven that it can or cannot be tolerated. If the symptoms disappear upon the menus elected, additional foods are cautiously and slowly added one at a time. Successful results have been obtained in many perplexing cases by this method, but it is often difficult to secure the complete coöperation of the patient due to the necessary rigidity of the plan.

A non-specific high-calcium diet is useful in hay fever and allergic coryza as an adjuvant to the specific hyposensitization procedures (Refer to page 478). Care must be taken before prescribing this diet to see that the patient is not susceptible to the foods indicated.

The addition of cod-liver oil concentrate to the diet renders it more effective. The tablets (two) may be administered three times a day. It is suggested that 2 teaspoonfuls of lactose be added to each glass of milk.

Refer elsewhere for additional Foods Highest in Calcium.

Offending-food-free Dietary.—The following arrangement of foods is of value as a permanent diet in cases of infective asthma, or asthmatic bronchitis where food is not a specific causative factor or as a temporary diet in other allergic conditions, to be used while the possibility of specific food excitants is being investigated. It will be noted that the substances found generally to be the most frequent excitants are omitted together with many of the foods most common in producing flatulence.

Omit.	Advised.
Egg and egg-containing foods	Butter, cream
Milk, unless boiled twenty minutes	Bacon
Cheese, ice-cream	Chicken, turkey
Pork, ham and sausage, fresh or smoked	Lamb (roast, chops, kidneys)
Fowl (duck, goose)	Beef (roast, steak, calves' liver, chipped beef)

Omit.		Advised.	
Fish, except oysters		Oysters	
It and wheat products		Rye (pure rye bread, Ry-Krisp crackers)	
Macaroni, noodles, spaghetti)		Rice (also Rice Flakes, Cream of Rice cereal)	
		Corn (cornmeal muffins, Corn Flakes, hominy)	
		Oats	Barley
		Arrowroot	Tapioca
ables:			
Beans, all types	Green peas	Artichokes	Onion (boiled)
Except string	Green pepper	Asparagus	Spinach
beans	Mustard	Beets	Squash
Beccoli	Onion (raw)	Carrots	String beans
Brussels sprouts	Parsley	Eggplant	Tomato
Cabbage	Parsnip	Endive	White potato
Cauliflower	Radishes	Lettuce	(baked)
Celery	Sweet potato	Okra	
Cucumber	Turnips		
ts:			
Cantaloupe	Raisins	Apples	Lemon
Straw fruits (in children)	Strawberries	Apricots	Limes
Coneydew melon	Watermelon	Banana	Oranges
		Berries	Peaches
		Cherries	Pears
		Cranberries	Pineapple
		Dates	Plums
		Figs	Prunes
		Grapefruit	Rhubarb
		Grapes	Tangerines
drages:			
Chocolate, cocoa		Tea	
Beer, ale		Coffee	
Carbonated drinks (ginger ale, etc.)		Coffee substitutes	
cellaneous:			
Clad oils except pure olive oil		Olive oil	
Condiments, highly spiced foods		Gelatin	
Dried foods			
Excessively sweet foods			
Extremely cold foods or drinks			

While the emphasis in this discussion is placed upon the diet, it must be borne in mind that not always is food responsible for the symptoms in the various allergic conditions. Very often the causative factor is found to be either an inhalant or an acute or chronic irritative process, located usually in some portion of the respiratory or gastro-intestinal tract. Accordingly, such causes must be considered in a search for the etiology in any allergic state.

NOTE.—Further details referable to elimination diets are to be found in the portion devoted to Dermatology and Exudative Diathesis.

MIGRAINE.—In the discussion of allergic diseases it was stated, in the opening sentence, that certain forms of migraine were classified

as hypersensitive conditions. La Roche, Richet, and Saint Giro have suggested that headaches might be a form of allergy. Ten years later Brown stated that he had discovered that certain foods produced headaches in some individuals. Many other investigators have stated that migraine is an anaphylactic reaction. While undoubtedly many headaches of allergic origin seem to present characteristics of migraine, there are many others which do not conform. For this reason it would seem best, as suggested by Eyermann, to classify cases of food headaches as allergic, and not as migraine.

The remarks made previously as to the foods most important as excitants in the several types of allergic diseases apply here. It has been estimated by some authors that at least one-third of patients suffering from allergic headache respond with immediate specific reactions to tests with the various food excitants. However, the majority do not respond, chiefly because they are of the delayed type, with a reaction time of from three to forty-eight hours intervening between the ingestion of the specifically exciting food and the appearance of the headache. It could hardly be expected that a patient, in whom the symptoms of a headache occur after a lapse of several hours following the ingestion of the food, would respond with an immediate cutaneous reaction upon test. When the cause of the headache is not apparent by history or by test, and when elimination diets are unsuccessful, the offending food or dietary mentioned previously may be tried.

Hay Fever.—Although true hay fever is always caused by contact with specific pollen excitants, many cases of pollinosis have been found that their symptoms are greatly aggravated by dietary indiscretions. This form of irritation may be due either to an associated hypersensitiveness to foods or to a non-specific stimulating effect upon the congested upper respiratory mucosa. Many patients sensitive to ragweed pollen are found to be sensitive also to many summer fruits and vegetables, particularly sweet corn, cucumber, cantaloupe, honeydew melon, watermelon, peaches, pears, and grapes; less frequently radish, lettuce, and tomato are found to be excitants.

As mentioned previously, it must be remembered that every allergic case presents a different food problem, and where there is present in the history of the hay fever patient a suggestion of food sensitiveness, the reaction to the various articles of diet should be studied. A non-specific irritating effect frequently occurs from the ingestion of alcoholic beverages. Tobacco, particularly in the form of cigar smoke, coffee, and tea have been found to be intensely irritating to many hay fever patients.

ANEMIA, PERNICIOUS.

Discussion.—The dietary management of pernicious anemia is a problem which should interest equally the physician, the dietitian and the nurse. This disease has always presented so many obstacles to health, that any therapeutic advance must be regarded as a decided step forward.

prior to the work of Minot and Murphy, pernicious anemia was a slowly progressing disease which terminated fatally. Since the introduction of the liver diet, the profession accomplishes what heretofore was impossible; namely, the restoration of the blood count to normal and the maintenance of the health of the patient. Although still ignorant of the etiology of pernicious anemia, the profession is fully acquainted with its manifestations. It is familiar not only with the blood picture and its variations, but also with the various changes exhibited throughout the body.

Many investigators, who have conscientiously followed cases of pernicious anemia by frequent blood counts while administering a liver diet, have definitely substantiated the findings of the original observers.

Very promptly after the introduction of a liver diet, the change observed in the blood count, of increased red cells and hemoglobin, together with a change in the character of the red cells themselves, is apparent. Not long after the institution of a proper diet the blood count loses its characteristic pernicious anemia picture and frequently simulates a secondary anemia.

No better presentation can be given of the method of treatment than in a paraphrasing of Minot and Murphy's original work.

The daily requirements of the diet in order of their importance are:

1. Liver (calves', beef or chicken), and lamb kidneys freshly cooked. At least 120, preferably 200 or more grams (cooked weight); cook without fat; broil, bake, boil, mince or make into soup.

2. Fruits (preferably fresh), especially peaches, apricots, pineapple, strawberries, oranges and grapefruit—about 400 grams.

3. Red muscle meat, trimmed free of fat, freshly cooked; 125 grams or more. Beef heart desirable.

4. Vegetables containing 1 to 10 per cent carbohydrates, preferably fresh, raw or cooked; not less than 300 grams. Lettuce, asparagus, cabbage and tomatoes, especially desired. (Refer to table of carbohydrate content of vegetables.)

5. Fats restricted, not over 70 grams. Avoid cheese, bacon, fried foods. Allow but little cream and butter and not over 1 egg daily. Use mineral oil for salad dressings.

6. Avoid grossly sweet food; allow sugar sparingly.

7. Starchy foods, as cereals, potatoes, breads, add to suit individual's desires, but not to the exclusion of requirements previously stated. Starchy foods, such as crusty or dextrinated whole wheat toast are desirable.

8. Milk should be limited to 240 cc. daily.

9. Avoid excess salt.

10. Tea and coffee as desired.

From the preceding outline it is seen that the diet is high in proteins, purins and iron, and low in fats. Particular stress should be laid upon the attractiveness of the service. Minot and Murphy advise the serving of several small meals each day rather than three average meals. The likes and dislikes of the patient should be considered but the obligatory articles must be eaten. This will require extra effort if palatability is to be assured.

Typical Menu.*Breakfast:*

Fruit

Cooked whole grain cereal with milk *or* whole grain toast with butterEgg *or* liver *or* kidneyMilk *or* coffee with milk and sugar*Luncheon and dinner:*Liver *or* kidney *or* lean meat

Cooked vegetable, other than potato, with butter

Salad with lemon juice

Whole grain bread with butter

Fresh *or* stewed fruitMilk *or* coffee *or* tea with milk and sugar

Suggestions.—In persistent diarrhea it may be necessary to reduce the fruits and to purée the vegetables.

When it is impossible for the patient to take much food, it is important that at least some liver or kidneys be eaten. The starchy foods are given in accordance with the amount of other food partaken. Present information suggests that the patient should continue this type of diet even though the red blood cell count remains high.

The efficiency of such a diet as has just been described is dependent in a direct ratio on the lack of cooking that the liver undergoes. It is therefore advantageous to cook the liver as little as possible, providing it is palatable.

Where raw liver is included in the menu, it may be finely ground and served with tomato juice in the form of a cocktail or added to soup just before serving.

When patients are intractable and do not coöperate, when an idiosyncrasy is present or when the expected response to liver therapy is disappointing, the administration of a well recognized liver extract or other hematopoietic is indicated.

Loss of weight in pernicious anemia is characteristically uncommon. This should be considered in the computation of a proper dietary as it is rarely necessary to institute a high-caloric diet. Infiltration into the diet of those foods highest in manganese, copper and iron in the form of coarse vegetables and fruits can well serve to establish the proper indicated mineral and caloric intake. Refer to Foods Highest in Manganese, Copper and Iron.

Spontaneous cures of pernicious anemia have been reported. Further observation of these spontaneously cured cases has yielded evidence of characteristic remission periods of unbelievable length.

As previously mentioned, the feeding of liver and other foods high in protein will produce prompt response with blood regeneration in almost all cases of pernicious anemia. The actual curative factor in "liver therapy" has not as yet been determined. It is possible that this effective factor alone is insufficient to produce the accomplished result. Whether there is some synergistic asso-

in between this unknown and other elements as amino-acids, calcium, copper, manganese, etc., remains to be seen. Respective of the pleasing laboratory and clinical results recorded "liver therapy," the restoration of spinal cord changes to normal has not yet been observed.

It is generally expected that a patient suffering from pernicious anemia will present a lowering of the gastric acid content even to achylia gastrica. Aside from diet this can be corrected by administration of various therapeutic agents. Generally, the inclusion into the diet of those foods recommended elsewhere for Gastric Hypoacidity will prove beneficial.

Additional supplies of the vitamin-B complex are desirable. This is most effectively taken as the powdered brewers' yeast. If possible, at least 1 heaping T. should be taken in water or tomato juice between meals. Large doses (1 to 2 grams per kilogram of body weight) have been associated with marked improvement in pernicious anemia.

ANEMIA, SECONDARY.

Discussion.—Secondary anemia is an anemia associated with some demonstrable cause such as hemorrhage, nephritis, diabetes, heart disease, syphilis, malaria, etc.

The anemia encountered in childhood is generally nutritional and environmental in origin. Proper checking of the diet with investigation of the vitamin and mineral constituents as against the normal requirements will often indicate the sole corrective course. Exposure to sunlight or artificial heliotherapy, in conjunction with administration of the hematopoietic stimulating foods, will generally bring about desired results in the event that there is no underlying focus present.

The paramount considerations in the dietary treatment of secondary anemia which have proved valuable are: the intake of sufficient caloric value to meet the requirements of the individual; the attention to the diet, with major insistence, of certain proved foods; and the replenishment of lost fluid volume when indicated.

The treatment of anemia during the past several years has undergone marked metamorphosis due to the epochal work of Minot and Murphy. Whereas the efficiency of liver in secondary anemia is not that shown in pernicious anemia, nevertheless its administration is an important factor in establishing blood regeneration.

Following is a table of Foods Most Capable of Increasing Hemoglobin:

Paragus	Brains	Molasses
Peas	Calves' liver	Peaches
Potatoes	Chicken gizzard	Pig kidney
Beef heart	Chicken liver	Pineapple
Beef kidney	Fish liver	Prunes
Beef liver	Lamb kidney	Raisins
Beef spleen	Lamb liver	Strawberries
Egg-marrow	Lettuce, green	Yeast

Modern diets will be at variance with past teachings. Many of the profession's pet theories of foods for anemia have been discarded.

The effect of the ingestion of iron as obtained from foods is now thought to be synergistically enhanced by the associated presence of copper and manganese. The following foods carry the high combination of these three minerals:

Almonds	Cocoa	Pineapple
Beans, kidney	Filberts	Pistachio nuts
Beans, lima	Lentils	Spinach
Beef juice	Liver, calves'	Walnuts
Cherries, fresh	Olives, green	Watercress
Chocolate	Parsley	Wheat bran

The necessity of sufficient *vitamin A* in the correction of anemia has been widely stressed. A predominance of this vitamin is found in the following foods: butter, fish-liver oils, tomato, egg-yolk, milk and leafy vegetables, principally cabbage, cauliflower, lettuce and spinach.

Generous amounts of the vitamin-B complex should be furnished in the diet. Brewers' yeast is particularly desirable. It may be taken on arising in the morning.

The maintenance at a high level of the *protein* element in the diet is also essential. An effort should be made to introduce protein-bearing food wherever possible, which may be conveniently accomplished by combining the two lists of previously recommended foods.

A properly balanced diet should be a palatable mixture of the indicated foods, containing sufficient caloric value to satisfy the body requirements. Molasses should be introduced wherever feasible since it is highly efficacious in the treatment of nutritional anemia.

Omit.

Fried foods	Rich desserts
Highly seasoned foods	

Limit.

Condiments and seasonings, aside from an amount of pepper and salt requisite for palatability.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

- Fruit
- Whole grain cereal, cooked *or* prepared, with milk and sugar
- Egg, except fried
- Whole grain toast *or* rolls with butter
- Milk *or* coffee with cream and sugar

Typical Menu.—(*Continued.*)*Luncheon:*

Choice: meat, fish, eggs or cheese
 Cooked vegetable
 Salad with dressing
 Whole grain bread or roll with butter
 Fresh or stewed fruit
 Milk or tea with lemon and sugar

Dinner:

Soup
 Meat or fish
 Potato
 Cooked vegetable
 Salad with dressing
 Whole grain bread with butter
 Choice: fruit, simple dessert, cheese and crackers
 Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

Suggestions.—Frequently, in conjunction with anemia, there is present an anorexia, causing the volume of food consumed in twenty-four hours to be inadequate. In these cases it is wise to restrict those foods low in caloric value and replace with foods of greater caloric yield.

An increased volume of food per diem is further accomplished by restriction of fluids, particularly water, at meal times and its administration between meals. It is essential that the caloric-yielding foods are not replaced by non-caloric-bearing liquids. In anemias with associated digestive disturbances, nutritional value could be sacrificed for digestibility.

Although there is some dispute as to the efficacy of liver in the treatment of secondary anemia, nevertheless, in view of the high-caloric value obtainable from liver, its prescription is not contradicted.

Often in the treatment of anemia there are associated conditions which may be so offending as to make the prescription of a detailed diet impractical. However, the adherence to the general principles outlined should be observed.

It is important to remember that the administration of broths, bouillon and beef extracts, so long recommended in anemias, is valuable only in so far as they tend to stimulate a jaded appetite and afford a source of readily assimilable mineral salts.

Commonly, the appearance of food in bulk, to an invalid, is unappetizing, which makes it wise to serve the patient with two small portions of the same food rather than one large serving.

For those patients who are underweight, a desirable adjuvant in the diet is olive oil which is advised after meals and which should

be served cold, flavored with some lemon juice, if necessary. Cod liver oil, due to its high-caloric value and vitamin potency, may be utilized. Refer to Chlorosis.

ANGINA PECTORIS

ROBERT McGRATH, M. D.

One of the most important therapeutic measures in angina pectoris is the maintenance of normal or slightly subnormal weight and the reduction of weight to these levels in the overweight patient. Weight reduction can be obtained by using an 800 to 1000 calorie diet. When the proper weight has been reached it can be maintained by increasing the caloric intake to suit the individual patient.

Hypertension is frequently associated with angina pectoris. Reduction of the blood pressure benefits the heart and often diminishes the frequency of the pain. Recently a rice diet for hypertension has been introduced which should be considered in each case having angina pectoris and hypertension. (See diet in Hypertension, page 257).

The remainder of the dietary measures for angina pectoris are concerned with the digestive tract. The patient sometimes does better on five small meals a day rather than the usual three. Any food known to produce indigestion in the individual case should be omitted. The diet should be planned for the treatment of any associated disease or dysfunction of the biliary tract and the gastrointestinal tract such as chronic cholecystitis, biliary dyskinesia, peptic ulcer, and functional disorders of the stomach and colon of which the common forms are hyperacidity, spastic colon, and atonic constipation. The great importance of proper diet in these associated conditions lies in the production of vasoconstriction of the coronary arteries by viscerocardiac reflexes of which the efferent limb is the vagus. Years ago von Bergman showed that there is a great reduction in coronary flow in experimental animals when the stomach or the esophagus is distended by means of a balloon. This work was recently repeated by N. C. Gilbert and his associates with the same results and they also showed that coronary vasoconstriction resulted from distention of the gallbladder and from distention of the abdominal cavity with air. Section of the vagus nerves or atropine in adequate dosage prevented these viscerocardiac reflexes in the animals. Gilbert and his associates also carried out clinical experiments in patients known to develop angina pectoris after meals. When a low oxygen mixture was administered it was demonstrated that the pain came on much sooner after a meal than before and that the effect of a meal did not develop if an adequate dose of atropine was previously given. These experiments show the effect of atropine in the prevention of viscerocardiac reflexes and support the clinical impression of the value of proper diet in angina pectoris associated with conditions capable of producing such reflexes.

The actual dietary measures covering the points discussed will be found in this book under the specific headings such as weight reduction, hypertension, etc. Moderate use of coffee and tea may be permitted if the patient notices no unfavorable effect. This discussion also applies to coronary sclerosis without anginal pain.

ARTHRITIS AND OTHER RHEUMATIC DISORDERS

EDWARD V. HARTUNG, M. D.

Any discussion of diet in arthritis and other rheumatic conditions must take into consideration the various types of disorders under these headings. For this reason we will briefly state the classification current today. One can divide the conditions into two groups, diseases of the joints, and diseases of the non-articular or fibrous, or supporting tissues of the body.

A modified classification of the disease of the joints is as follows:

- (1) Infectional arthritis (of proved etiology, such as gonorrheal arthritis).
- (2) Probably infectional (etiology unproved).
 - a. Arthritis of rheumatic fever
 - b. Rheumatoid arthritis
 - c. Arthritis associated with various infections (as mumps, etc.)
- (3) Degenerative arthritis. (osteoarthritis).
- (4) Arthritis associated with metabolic disturbances (as gout).
- (5) Arthritis of neuropathic origin.
- (6) Miscellaneous forms (as serum sickness, hemophilia, etc.).

In addition, particularly for reasons of differential diagnosis, other joint disturbances must be considered in this field, such as disturbances secondary to trauma either static or dynamic, disturbances secondary to lesions of the bones, primary neoplasms of joints, and disturbances associated with loose bodies and secondary to functional or psychogenic causes.

Disorders of the supporting structures of the body or "fibrotic" may be classified as follows:

- (1) Anatomical classification
 - Collagen degeneration
 - Myosynovitis
 - Fascitis
 - Tendonitis
 - Tendosynovitis
 - Periarthritis
 - Panniculitis
 - Neurosynovitis
 - Bursitis
- (2) Etiological classification
 - Infectional
 - Acute (as in grippe)
 - Chronic (as from focal infection)
 - Probably infectional, as in
 - Acute rheumatic fever
 - Rheumatoid arthritis
 - Lupus erythematosus
 - Scleroderma

- Dermatomyositis
- Periarthritis Nodosa
- Traumatic
 - Dynamic
 - Static traumatic (poor body mechanics)
- Secondary (to abnormal use of joint)
 - Under-activity
 - Over-activity
 - Architectural stress
- Senile
- Psychogenic
- Metabolic

In most of these conditions diet has never been shown to be an important consideration. However, where diet has been discussed as a factor in therapy, separate treatment will be given to each below. But before proceeding to a specific study of the dietary treatment of particular forms of rheumatism, it would be well to discuss separately the various food components, as they relate to rheumatic disturbances.

In recent years a great deal of work has appeared on the relationship of the various vitamins to rheumatic disorders. Few, if any, of these suggestions have a real basis in scientific observation. Vitamin A has been recommended in infectious processes in general and, therefore, in rheumatic disturbances where an infectious etiology has been proposed. In rheumatic conditions, however, a specific deficiency of vitamin A has never been proven, and the administration of vitamin A in small or large doses has never been shown to be effective in therapy.¹¹

Vitamin B1 has a definite place where its deficiency has resulted in neuritic degeneration as in alcoholic polyneuritis, and for this reason, illogically, vitamin B1 has been used in the treatment of all forms of neuritis. It has been shown, however, that in most forms of neuritis usually included in the rheumatic fields, the cause is extrinsic nerve pressure, such as results from a herniation of the nucleus pulposus. In none of these conditions, naturally, will the administration of vitamin B1 be effective. One can say in general that the use of vitamin B1 in rheumatic neuritis is irrational and without therapeutic effect.⁸

Other components of the vitamin B complex have been recommended in this field for their general tonic effect and for specific effects on the gastro-intestinal function.⁷ These are legitimate uses in the treatment of the constitutional status of the patient, but should never be considered as specific forms of therapy related to the etiological basis of the rheumatic disease.

A great deal of work has been done on vitamin C in this field. It has been shown, for example, that there is a deficiency of vitamin C in the blood and urine in acute rheumatic fever as well as in rheumatoid arthritis, and some workers have suggested that this might be an etiological factor in the causation of these conditions.¹² It is well known, however, that most infections are associated with similar findings of vitamin C deficiency, and that these findings

the manifestations of infection in general and not specifically of rheumatic disorders. However, the finding is an indication for the administration of adequate amounts of vitamin C by mouth to meet this proven deficiency.

Vitamin D has been used extensively in recent years in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis, following the reports of Dryer and Reed⁴, and later Farley and his associates.⁶ Its use has been popularized by extensive advertising of a number of proprietary preparations, most of which contain 50,000 units of Vitamin D to each capsule. While some of the reports on the use of these preparations in rheumatoid arthritis, and also in osteoarthritis, appear favorable, the best work has shown that their administration results at times in a feeling of well-being, but in no sense affects the course or the pathology of any rheumatic disease.⁹ Vitamin D in ordinary amounts may promote intestinal absorption of calcium and phosphorus and for this reason is commonly recommended in small amounts as in cod liver oil. It must be stressed, however, that excessive vitamin D intake often produces nausea, vomiting, and high calcium blood levels.³ Deaths have been reported.

Vitamin E in the form of wheat germ oil or alpha tocopherol has been used in the treatment of primary fibrositis and Dupuytren's contractures, particularly after the publication of articles by Steinerberg.¹⁷ Its use has been suggested on the basis of the muscle changes associated with known vitamin E deficiency.¹³ However, while favorable results in the treatment of fibrositis have been claimed following oral and parenteral administration and by theunction of vitamin E ointment, the general impression is that its use in fibrositic conditions is ineffective.

Vitamin K has recently been suggested for administration along with sodium salicylate. It has been shown that large doses of sodium salicylate may temporarily lower the prothrombin levels and that hemorrhagic manifestations may result. As a matter of fact it has been suggested that many of the hemorrhagic manifestations formerly considered to be a part of acute rheumatic fever may now be considered to be the result of therapy with large doses of salicylates, rather than the result of the disease process itself. To counteract this effect vitamin K has been suggested for administration along with salicylates and its use has been shown to be effective in this regard. In no sense, however, has it been claimed to be a factor in the treatment of the basic disease process.

The various mineral components of the diet have occasionally attracted the interest of rheumatologists. The foremost of these is iron. In many rheumatic conditions notably acute rheumatic fever and rheumatoid arthritis the patient usually develops a hypochromic anemia. It will be natural in situations of this type to recommend the administration of iron (and liver) in large doses. However, it has been repeatedly shown that its use in these cases does not produce effective results, in raising the hemoglobin or red blood cell levels. These rise automatically as the disease process comes quiescent. However, there is certainly no theoretical

reason why iron should not be administered as an adjuvant to treatment of the rheumatic disorders, particularly those of infectious origin.

Calcium by mouth and by parenteral administration has had proponents, probably because of the observation of decalcification in infectious arthritis, particularly rheumatoid arthritis. In view of the fact that most work has shown that the serum calcium and phosphate levels in all ordinary rheumatic disorders are within normal limits, and that calcium balance studies have always shown a relatively normal calcium and phosphate metabolism¹⁰, it is difficult to defend the administration of either calcium or phosphorus in any of the rheumatic disorders. On the other hand, because of the fact that in osteoarthritis one sees hypertrophic spurs at the joint margins, it has often been suggested that calcium is detrimental. One must always remember that these spurs are not deposits, but rather extensions of the bone structure, and are always the result of bone irritation sequential to cartilage erosion and are not related directly or indirectly to calcium metabolic disturbance or to calcium or phosphorus insufficiency or excess. Prohibition against high calcium foods such as milk, therefore, has no rational basis in practice.

A low sodium high potassium diet has been recommended in the past by many physicians¹⁴ on the assumption that this regime would eliminate fluid from the joints; raw food diets⁵ have been recommended for this reason. This observation has not been scientifically verified.

In taking up the dietary indications for various forms of arthritis reference can be made to the classification outlined above. In infectious arthritis such as gonorrheal, streptococcal or pneumococcal arthritis, the dietary indications are in no sense specific and depend on the basic disease and on the presence or absence of febrile reaction. Joint tuberculosis, which by the way, is an increasingly rare disease, naturally requires a dietary high in caloric and vitamin intake, just as does other forms of tuberculosis.

In acute rheumatic fever there are no special indications except as indicated by the severity and stage of the disease. Naturally during the acute stages with temperature the dietary must be suitable for such patients. A diet, high in vitamin C with supplemental vitamin C intake by mouth, is indicated on the basis of the low vitamin C levels found in this disease.¹⁵

There is a general and probably well-founded impression that acute rheumatic fever is more common among the poor than the well-to-do.¹² This has been shown by many workers. Peete found that rheumatic fever was less prominent in private school pupils than in students in public schools, and less prominent in rural than in city populations. The importance of vitamin A and B, milk, proteins, and sunshine, and the importance of plenty of rest, lack of crowding in housing, and freedom from emotional stress have all been factors emphasized in the past, and probably with considerable justification.

Rheumatoid arthritis has received a great deal of attention on the dietary point of view in the past years, but recently it has been realized that there are no specific indications of a dietary nature in this crippling disorder.² Almost all patients with severe rheumatoid arthritis lose weight markedly and develop a hypochromic anemia. It is considered, however, that malnutrition is definitely not a cause of the disease. Contrary to the impression gathered in regard to acute rheumatic fever, it is well-established that rheumatoid arthritis attacks the rich and poor equally, the well-nourished as well as the poorly fed. It is definitely known that the loss of weight and the anemia are related to the basic mechanism of the disease and are not specifically dietary.

Most of the restrictions considered important in the past have been left behind. These restrictions at one time or another covered most food components of the normal diet. It was considered that meat was bad because it was "too acid". In part this was due to confusion of this disease with gout. Carbohydrates have been considered detrimental because of an alleged impaired glucose tolerance. A reduction in the caloric intake appears to benefit the disease according to some workers. Specific dietary factors have been accused of detrimental effects, such as tomatoes, citrus fruits, asparagus, etc. Needless to say, none of these restrictions has been found to be based on unassailable scientific evidence.

A patient with rheumatoid arthritis should receive specific instructions, so that he may partake daily of a well balanced high caloric diet, adequate in iron, calcium, phosphorus and vitamins, supplemented for safety sake by vitamin concentrates, particularly B Complex, C and D₁. Such a diet is outlined on page 48.*

The patient should be impressed with the fact that an adequate amount of protein intake is essential, not only because of the anemia, but also because of the fact that in severe rheumatoid arthritis one commonly finds a low albumin content of the plasma, the albumin-bilirubin ratio being commonly reversed, causing dependent edema. This finding is not related to renal insufficiency but is probably based on some change in liver, or possibly adrenal cortex, function.

In summary let us say that it is essential to impress the rheumatoid arthritis patient with the fact that there are no important dietary prohibitions. Even alcohol in ordinary amounts is allowed.

Degenerative arthritis or, to use the common term, osteoarthritis, is a wearing out of the joint structures, particularly the cartilage, due to prolonged or abnormal use. In a sense it is not a disease at all but rather a manifestation of aging. Dietary considerations have been stressed as important factors in the cause of this basic cartilage erosion. It is true that cartilage, along with the hair and nails, is high in sulphur content, and in the past sulphur has been administered by mouth and parenterally because of this fact. However, the sulphur metabolism of cartilage is an almost unknown subject, and in addition the administration of sulphur to date has never been shown to be effective in the prevention or therapy of this disorder.

Any well-balanced high vitamin diet outlined in some other part of the text.

All people over forty have more or less osteoarthritis, depending on the worth of their cartilaginous tissues and the amount of exercise to which they have been applied in their lives. Everyone, however, does not complain of symptoms. The usual precipitating factor productive of symptoms is trauma and the most important trauma is static trauma. Foremost in this latter regard is the rôle of obesity in producing static trauma on already degenerating joints. The basic cartilaginous damage in osteoarthritis cannot of course be corrected, but the traumatic factors sequential to poor body mechanics, particularly obesity, are decidedly susceptible to proper therapy.

Most people complaining of osteoarthritic joints will be found to be overweight. Therefore, one of the first principles in the treatment of osteoarthritis is a reduction in weight where the weight is found to be excessive. This simple procedure is often the deciding factor in the elimination of pain in osteoarthritic joints. The usual 1000 or 600 calorie diet, depending on the severity of the obesity, is recommended (see pages 467, 468).

Gout is the one disease producing joint manifestations which appear to demand specific dietary therapy. The etiology of gout is still unknown and some workers even question whether or not a defect in urate metabolism is the basic derangement. It is certainly a fact that the endogenous production of urates is more important than the urates of exogenous origin. However, it is equally true that diets excessive in uric-acid-producing foods are detrimental and can be shown to precipitate attacks.

During an acute attack of gout experience indicates that a diet extremely low in purine substances is beneficial. A diet which is purine free is not considered practical. During an attack, therefore, it has been found effective to allow the patient to have carbohydrates and sugars, all the fruits and vegetables, all the cereals and protein in the form of eggs, milk and cheese, but the latter in small amounts only, because of their high fat content.

Between attacks and in chronic gout it is sufficient to restrict the dietary to the above items and in addition allow one small portion of meat, fish or fowl each day.

The time honored custom of handing the patient with gout a list of foods, high, medium, and low in purine content, and allowing him to make his selection from this, does not appear to have practical value. The foods highest in purine contents, however, such as the inner organs of animals, are never allowed in the dietary of a gouty patient.

A ketogenic diet has been shown to result in an elevation of the blood uric acid level.¹⁰ This can be demonstrated during the administration of a low caloric diet in the reduction of obese patients, or in the administration of a high fat diet in any patient, with or without gout. Because of this it is now considered important in gout to restrict the intake of fat to a minimum compatible with health and proper intake of fat-soluble vitamins.

Vitamin B Complex has occasionally been considered a factor in the etiology and therapy of gout and its administration has been

recommended as a therapeutic measure. However, there is probably no basis in scientific fact for this usage.

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ANHYDREMIA

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

discussion. — When, for any reason, the amount of water eliminated becomes greater than the amount ingested, desiccation of the blood tissues results, and characteristic symptoms become manifest attributable to blood concentration. The most common cause of anhydremia is diarrhea in which the stools are copious, frequent and watery. Vomiting is usually an associated symptom, and the fluid intake is grossly diminished. Increasing the amount of fluid in such cases causes an increase in the severity of the symp-

toms, and therefore, the clinical picture has been erroneously assumed to be one of alimentary intoxication. It is commonly recognized that the severe symptoms of alimentary intoxication are due to the loss of water with consequent anhydremia, rather than to the absorption of toxic materials.

Anhydremia is also found in the absence of diarrhea, and when the food is of such a character that it does not cause gastrointestinal disturbances. An example of this is seen in infants who have been nursing from dry breasts. It is seen in starving patients and in idiots who refuse food and water. It occurs with intracranial lesions which cause central vomiting, and during the course of certain acute infections like pneumonia and influenza.

The symptoms are dependent to a great extent upon the decrease in blood volume. One of the earliest symptoms is a loss of body weight which is often excessive in amount and rapidity. Coincidental with this the appearance of the patient changes. The features become sharpened and the eyes sink deeper, turn upward, become glassy and have a far away stare. Later, the luster of the conjunctiva is lost and they are coated with a film. The skin becomes dry, assumes a peculiar pallor, and the fontanelle is depressed. The mouth is open, the tongue is dry and furry and the lips parched and cracked and frequently of a dark red color.

The pulse is small and irregular and the volume flow of the blood is greatly diminished, due to its concentration. Frequently a moderate leukocytosis is present.

The urine is scanty and highly concentrated containing granular casts and albumin. The kidney becomes functionally inactive although at postmortem examination no demonstrable lesions are evident. This renal inactivity leads to the accumulation in the blood of products ordinarily readily eliminated.

The non-protein nitrogen of the blood rises. Amounts above 200 milligrams per 100 cc. are not uncommon. The blood chloride is increased. The blood bicarbonate content is reduced. In some cases this is so low that the volume percentage of CO_2 falls below 10, thereby indicating a reduction of bicarbonate to one-fifth of the normal.

As a rule, there is some fever present. This may be due to infection, but at times seems to be due to a disturbance of the cerebral heat regulating center. At first these patients are excited and restless, but later, if untreated, they lapse into coma and finally convulsions appear.

The progress depends to a great extent upon the underlying causes. In vomiting and diarrhea the prognosis is serious. Acidosis renders the prognosis especially grave, as it indicates that there has been a profound metabolic disturbance. If the anhydremia is due to insufficient fluid intake alone, it usually clears up promptly when sufficient fluid has been given.

Prophylactic Treatment.—Treat promptly any condition which is likely to lead to water loss by increasing the fluid intake. Remember that the water balance must remain positive. Treat the diarrhea as outlined elsewhere. Give water freely.

treatment.—Once the condition is well developed, the essential thing to do is to supply water. This may be given by mouth, as frequently as possible and as much as the child will take. If vomited, immediately offer it again and it will often be retained. Saline injections intravenously, subcutaneously and intraperitoneally may be indicated.

In severe cases it is advisable to give dextrose intravenously (5 to 15 per cent solution). This is hypertonic, but the dextrose is so rapidly oxidized or stored that the injection of such a solution is almost equivalent to the injection of water. These injections may be given two or three times daily to increase the blood volume and improve the circulation. At the same time the glucose acts as a catabolic and supplies a certain amount of food value. Blood transfusions also help restore the blood volume.

ARSENIC POISONING.

Refer to page 492.

ARTERIOSCLEROSIS.

discussion.—In spite of the tremendous amount of energy expended in the past and still being devoted to the study of arteriosclerosis, the disease, at this writing, is of unknown etiology. The pathologic findings clearly indicate that the original vascular change is of a fatty nature. Animal experimentation has produced changes in the arterial vessels, comparable to arteriosclerosis in the human, on the maintenance of high-protein diets. Irrespective of this excellent experimental work, the consensus of opinion does not place the blame specifically on protein. The rôle of cholesterol cannot be completely ignored.

It is accepted that arteriosclerosis predominates in the elderly. Startling exceptions to the rule are occasionally observed. Recently the author examined an eighteen-year-old Irish boy, in whom arteriosclerotic infiltration in the peripheral vessels was so severe as to cause the radial arteries to simulate small tendons.

The dietetic treatment of arteriosclerosis should be directed toward associated clinical entities such as hypertension or renal involvement. For overweight patients, already burdened with arteriosclerosis, a reduction diet should be immediately instituted, and a reduction of weight will relieve the cardiovascular system of unnecessary overload. The diet and regimen instituted for arterial hypertension is particularly suitable for the arteriosclerotic. In reiteration, maintenance of a proper caloric intake, volumetric diminution of the meals, avoidance of those foods tending to produce flatulence, together with an abundance of green vegetables and a moderate amount of meat and fish, should prove efficacious. The maintenance of a daily protein intake of at least 60 to 80 grams should be observed.

The question of salt restriction is still debatable. In all cases of hypertension, arteriosclerosis, nephritis, obesity and in many other conditions, salt should be restricted. One phase of reasoning for

this decision is that salt and other seasonings tend to increase appetite and thirst, resulting in the overingestion of food or liquid.

Specific diets for any associated disease may be found in detail in the portion of the book relegated to that disease.

BERI-BERI.

(See Section of Vitamin B₁, p. 816)

BRIGHT'S DISEASE.

HERMAN O. MOSENTHAL, M.D., AND MAURICE BRUGER, M.D.

Discussion.—Bright's disease is not an entity which may be traced from an etiologic agent that injures one organ from which its symptoms and signs spread out in a simple figure, like the spokes from the hub of a wheel. That is what the advocates of the classification of Bright's disease, on the basis of the pathologic lesion within the kidney, would have us believe. Such a conception of nephritis is perfect from the point of view of the pathologist, but does not meet the needs of the practising physician. For the latter Bright's disease is made up of a number of disturbances in the realm of anatomical or functional pathology or both, that, because of the vision of Richard Bright, have been grouped under his name. It is more satisfactory for the clinician to analyze each case as a symptom complex and thus develop a diagnostic picture which he can handle more intelligently and more effectively than if he classed each patient as acute diffuse glomerular nephritis, arteriosclerotic nephritis, or any other form of non-suppurative, inflammatory, renal lesion.

The problems in anatomic and functional pathology which should be considered in any case of Bright's disease are six in number. Not all of them are present in every patient and when they are found, one or the other assumes a dominant rôle and should be given corresponding attention. These six problems in Bright's disease are

1. Pathology of the kidney (that is, nephritis) and other organs
2. Diminution of renal function.
3. Arterial hypertension.
4. Edema.
5. Anemia.
6. Uremia.

Classification of the Renal Lesions in Bright's Disease (Nephritis)

I. **Glomerular Nephritis** (primary involvement of the glomeruli in inflammatory nephritis, hemorrhagic nephritis).

A. **Diffuse glomerular nephritis.**

1. *Acute diffuse glomerular nephritis* (acute nephritis, acute glomerular nephritis, acute hemorrhagic nephritis, intracapillary glomerulitis).
2. *Subacute diffuse glomerular nephritis* (fulminating glomerular nephritis, extracapillary glomerulitis).

Classification of the Renal Lesions in Bright's Disease (Nephritis).

(Continued.)

3. *Chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis* (chronic glomerular nephritis, chronic diffuse nephritis, chronic interstitial nephritis, one of the forms of chronic parenchymatous nephritis in its later stages, secondary contracted kidney).

N.B.—About 33 per cent of cases hitherto described as chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis are in reality pyelonephritis.

Glomerular Nephritis (primary involvement of the glomeruli, inflammatory nephritis, hemorrhagic nephritis).

B. Focal glomerular nephritis.

1. *Focal infectious glomerular nephritis* (benign hemorrhagic nephritis, infectious nephritis, focal hemorrhagic glomerular nephritis, hemorrhagic catarrh).
2. *Focal embolic glomerular nephritis* (embolic hemorrhagic nephritis, embolic non-suppurative focal nephritis, embolic glomerular lesions of subacute bacterial endocarditis, multiple glomerular embolization).

Tubular Nephritis (primary involvement of the tubules, degenerative nephritis, nephrosis).

- A. *Albuminuric Tubular Nephritis* (febrile albuminuria).
- B. *Edematous Tubular Nephritis* (genuine nephrosis, lipoid nephrosis, chronic nephrosis, diabetes albuminuricus).
- C. *Anuric Tubular Nephritis* (bichloride of mercury poisoning).
- D. *Hypertensive and Convulsive Tubular Nephritis* (toxemia of pregnancy).

Arterial Nephritis (primary involvement of the arteries and arterioles, vascular nephritis, arteriosclerotic nephritis, nephrosclerosis).

- A. *Arterial and Arteriolar Sclerosis* (benign nephrosclerosis, primary contracted kidney).
- B. *Arteriolar Necrosis* (malignant sclerosis, malignant nephrosclerosis, necrotizing arteriolitis).

Essential Hypertension.

Dietetic Management of Acute Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis.

The dietetic therapy of this lesion may be divided into two distinct cases: The prophylactic and the actual treatment.

Prophylactic Dietetic Treatment.—A very extensive experiment to determine the influence of diet on the occurrence of acute nephritis has been carried out in scarlet fever cases by Pospischill and Weiss. They divided their patients into two groups; the first of these received a vegetarian diet, the second was given large amounts of meat and broth. Each group was composed of 1186 cases. It was noticeable that the children that had received the meat had a good

color and were energetic while the others were pale and lethargic. The occurrence of acute nephritis in either group was the same; there being 116 cases of nephritis, that is, 9.78 per cent among the vegetarians, and 118 cases or 9.95 per cent among the meat-eaters. From these observations, it would seem justifiable to conclude that an abstinence from meat and meat products does not in any way prevent the occurrence of nephritis; in another direction, that in the maintenance of nutrition and vitality, the vegetarian diet is definitely deficient as compared to the effect of the foods containing meat or meat products.

Actual Dietetic Treatment.—In the dietetic treatment of an acute diffuse glomerular nephritis, one can afford to be extremely liberal because the disease exists for a short period only and it is possible to prescribe very bland diets without doing the patient any harm. The diets in favor at present consist largely of bland fluids such as orangeade, lemonade, or weak tea, fruits and starchy materials, such as gruels, arrowroot, cornstarch, sugar, honey and potatoes. Within two weeks after the onset of nephritis a full diet without the use of spices and a limited amount of salt may be gradually resumed. Since the period of rest in bed after an attack of acute nephritis usually exceeds this limit, the possible debilitating effect of the food need not be considered because it can be compensated for subsequently. We can therefore conscientiously give the kidney every benefit of moot questions and order only those foods for the patient which certainly will not damage the kidneys.

Renal Insufficiency.—The impairment of renal function in the form of Bright's disease is characterized by a urine of small volume (oliguria), of a specific gravity varying from 1.020 to 1.050 and with a high concentration of urea and a low concentration of sodium chloride. The amount of nitrogen retention in the blood (Myer, Fine and Lough), the increased urea ratio (Mosenthal and Bruges) and the diminished urea clearance (Van Slyke *et al.*) are indicative of the degree of renal insufficiency.

The dietetic treatment of acute nephritis already discussed above need not be altered when impairment of renal function occurs provided, of course, oliguria or anuria does not persist and nitrogen retention does not become extreme. In the face of the latter, the low-protein intake must be maintained.

Hypertension.—The hypertension occurring in acute diffuse glomerular nephritis has been ascribed by Blackfan to an edema of the brain. It is known from the work of Cushing and others, that an increased intracranial pressure will result in a rise of blood pressure. Consequently, it is perfectly logical to regard cerebral edema as a reason for the elevation of arterial tension in acute nephritis.

The blood pressure in this disease is transient, however, and furthermore, does not yield to dietetic treatment. Consequently from this point of view it is futile to pay any particular attention to it. In acute diffuse glomerular nephritis the urgent need is to treat the renal lesion and the necessary dietetic therapy for this has been previously outlined. When convulsive seizures manifest themselves

as they often do, supposedly because of the increase in intral pressure, dietetic treatment will have no effect either on them or the hypertension.

Edema.—In this form of nephritis, edema produced by damage to capillaries is prone to occur. It is not found in every case and is not the necessary accompaniment of this kidney lesion. When it occurs, presumably it is produced by an injury to the capillaries throughout the body which is similar to the damage associated with glomerular capillaries in these conditions. At times the edema is due to a lowered albumin content of the blood is also found. It is frequently spoken of as the nephrotic component in these cases. The edema brought on by cardiac failure may occur in the same form because of myocardial degeneration. Anemia does not constitute an important element in the production of edema in acute nephritis.

The duration of the acute stage of this disease is, as a rule, so short that particular attention need not be paid to the edema except under unusual circumstances. At times, the accumulation of fluid becomes so great that it is threatening to life and mechanical removal from the chest and abdominal cavities becomes necessary. In most instances, however, persistence of the edema is best treated by a low salt-free diet (page 257), by an increase in the protein content of the food and by a limited fluid intake.

The latter may be carried out by restricting the amount of liquid which is taken. Usually 750 to 1000 cc. is the quantity allowed. The so-called Karell diet (about 4 glasses, 800 cc., of milk a day) is often resorted to for the accomplishment of these ends. The objection to the Karell diet is that it contains a great deal of salt and that it does not furnish a sufficient amount of protein to maintain nutrition. As an emergency measure it may be of value for short periods. It has been established that it is the sodium fraction of the sodium chloride that is responsible for the retention of excess of fluid. The chlorine apparently is of no importance in connection. In providing substitute salts for sodium chloride, care should be borne in mind, because a good many of the commercial salt substitutes are sodium salts of other acids and consequently, have the same action on the production of edema as sodium chloride. When Widal and Javal and Strauss published their "Observations on the Relation of Salt to Edema," in 1902, it was thought that this was the only factor concerned and that all cases of abnormal fluid retention within the body could be favorably influenced by a restriction of this substance in the diet. However, it has been definitely shown that this is not correct and that though in some instances the edema can be very satisfactorily controlled by salt restriction, in some it is only a part of the cause, and in others usually of no influence at all. If substitutes are to be made for sodium chloride they should be made with potassium or calcium salts, and not with those that have sodium as a base. Potassium and calcium in themselves have a diuretic effect at times, while sodium does not.

It is now definitely appreciated that urea is a potent diuretic. A high-protein diet will result in the accumulation of urea in the blood and thus favor the elimination of urine. In addition, a high-protein diet will tend to set aside anemia and malnutrition and thus act as a preventive for the types of edema that are incident to a lowering of the blood albumin. When the immediate crisis in a case of acute glomerular nephritis has passed, a high-protein diet is indicated for the alleviation of symptoms and the prevention of complications. There are some objections to a high-protein diet on the ground that it will injure the kidneys, but the prevailing opinion is that no harm is done to the renal parenchyma by the use of such foods.

Fluid restriction should not be carried to extremes for any length of time. It must be realized that to a great extent in every person the fluid output and intake balance one another. This is only true for normal persons, but in edematous conditions as in nephritis. When edema exists there is a tendency to retain a certain amount of fluid within the body because of the anatomical and functional changes which have occurred, and quantities of liquid above the normal quota are very frequently eliminated and not held back. There are certain exceptions to these findings, but they can usually be checked by clinical observations and corrected accordingly by regulation of the fluid intake.

Anemia.—Since a number of factors, such as hematuria, proteinuria, edema, toxemia, a prolonged period of low-protein feeding and renal insufficiency tend to favor the production of anemia in acute diffuse glomerular nephritis, the more prolonged the disease, the greater the probability of developing secondary anemia. In a great many instances, however, the lesion heals promptly and little or no anemia occurs. If anemia does supervene, the underlying factors must be remedied if possible. Higher protein rations (60 to 80 grams) are definitely indicated provided, of course, the degree of nitrogen retention is not marked. This should be supplemented by iron and liver.

Since his original researches on ascorbic acid, Szent-Györgyi and others have reported on the favorable effects of this vitamin on hematuria and proteinuria of acute nephritis. It must be pointed out, however, that recent studies by Miller and his associates fail to confirm this observation.

Uremia.—With the advent and recognition of blood chemistry about 1915, it became evident that the convulsive seizures and other signs and symptoms indicative of the uremia accompanying acute diffuse glomerular nephritis were not associated with retention of urinary excretory products. This was a great surprise to clinicians and led them to search for a cause other than renal insufficiency. Blackfan and others, as previously indicated, have put forward the theory that edema of the brain and a consequent increase in intracranial pressure is responsible for this variety of uremia. Because of the presence of convulsions and spastic phenomena, this form of uremia has been variously called the convulsive, the epileptic,

asthenic type of uremia. This is done largely to differentiate it from the uremia incident to insufficient kidney activity which is usually spoken of as asthenic or retention uremia. No special dietetic therapy is indicated when this complication occurs in the case of acute diffuse glomerular nephritis. The foods mentioned at the outset of this discussion should be adhered to.

Summary.—Table 25 summarizes the dietetic management of acute diffuse glomerular nephritis. The manner in which this plan may be modified when renal insufficiency, hypertension, edema, anemia and/or uremia supervene has been discussed adequately.

TABLE 25.—Dietetic Management of Acute Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis.

Period.	Symptoms and signs.	Daily diet.					
		Protein.*	Carbohydrates.	Fat.	Total calories, cal./Kg.	Water, cc.	Salt, grams.
1 to 2 weeks	Hematuria, oliguria, edema and proteinuria	Minimal	Liberal	As desired	As desired	800–1000	Less than 2
3 to 4 weeks	Proteinuria persisting	Moderate 20–40	Liberal	As desired	30†	1500–2000	2–4
5 to 6 weeks	Minimal proteinuria persisting	Full 60–80	As desired	As desired	30	As desired	As desired

*The modified O'Hare diet (page 281) may be used to order the desired protein amounts.

†The caloric requirements are considerably higher in children.

Dietetic Management of Subacute Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis.

This is a term that is often applied to a nephritis that is prolonged beyond the acute stage and is in the process of becoming chronic. Merchand (1882) and Löhlein (1907) who first discovered and described this form of nephritis had a different renal lesion and clinical picture in mind. Clinically, these cases run a fulminating course and suffer a fatal termination within a few weeks to a few months because of a rapidly advancing renal insufficiency. Anatomically, they are characterized by an extracapillary (*i. e.*, the region between glomerular tuft and Bowman's capsule) accumulation of inflammatory products and a rapidly progressive destruction of the meruli. Thus far no form of treatment, dietetic or otherwise, has been found which influences this anatomical process. The diet in the presence of subacute diffuse glomerular nephritis therefore should be adjusted to the threatening functional changes in this condition, that is, the diminished renal function and its sequel, retention uremia, and in some cases to the edema, though the latter usually is of minor importance.

Dietetic Management of Chronic Diffuse Nephritis.

General Dietary Considerations.—There is a widespread belief that protein foods injure the kidneys, while carbohydrates and fats

do not. These ideas, though firmly adhered to for many years, have no or very little clinical or experimental evidence to support them. The administration of a diet in which carbohydrates and fat predominate has the advantage of reducing the urea and other non-protein nitrogenous constituents in the blood and tissues. The disadvantage of such calorie-producing, non-tissue replacing diet is that they favor the development of obesity and secondary anemias result in lassitude and weakness and, although they do not damage the kidneys, they may, because they do not provide for replacement of lost protein, actually result in the production of a nephritis, as shown by Barker and Kirk.

A high or normal protein ration presents none of these advantages or disadvantages. The principal argument against it is that it damages the normal kidney to a certain extent and is even more harmful for the less resistant kidney which is the seat of a nephritis. A brief analysis of the existing data in this field is of interest.

In the first place it may be logical to consider the effect of protein in the food upon the normal kidney. Lieb, Tolstoi, and McClellan and DuBois reported that two men living on an exclusive meat-fat diet containing 100 to 140 grams of protein daily, for one year showed no signs of renal damage or other evidence of Bright's disease; Lieb studied Stefansson, the Arctic explorer, who had lived for nine years on a meat and fat diet and found no evidence of cardiac or renal involvement; Thomas was unable to show that the high-meat diet of the Eskimos was harmful; and Krogh and Krogh found that the Greenland Eskimos, who consumed a diet of approximately 280 grams of animal protein, 135 grams of fat and 54 grams of carbohydrate, were free from renal disease. It has been stated by some that none of these data is at all conclusive because these diets are no higher in protein content than the average. This the writer does not believe to be correct. Sherman found that the average intake of protein was 42 grams per day and that this sufficed to prevent a nitrogen loss. Ashe and Mosenthal found that, in 1000 residents of New York, the average consumption of protein was 30 to 50 grams a day, that 60 grams was a very high intake and that 90 grams was very rarely indulged in. The above protein rations varying from 100 to 280 grams a day may therefore be regarded as distinctly high.

A much more radical experiment in this field is that of Newburgh, Lesses and Johnston who for six months fed a normal man the enormously high-protein diet containing protein 338 grams, fat 27 grams and carbohydrate 96 grams, making a total of 4177 Calories. The sources of the daily protein were as follows:

Fresh beef liver	400 grams
Fresh veal round	300 grams
Fresh beef tenderloin	700 grams
Dry beef	100 grams

The consumption of about 3 pounds of meat a day, some of it in dry concentrated form, entailing a protein intake four to eight times as large as that of the average individual, resulted in no retinopathy.

ages, no rise in blood pressure and no subjective disturbances. There was an increase in the number of urinary casts and some albuminuria; these disappeared ten days after the diet was discontinued. A transient slight hematuria and albuminuria after the cessation of such enormous amounts of proteins for a period of six months is ample testimony of the correct conclusions of the investigators previously mentioned. It may therefore be accepted that in a normal habitual diet, however high in protein it may be, will not damage the normal kidneys. In fact, some evidence has accrued that a higher protein intake will result in an increased clearance of urea by the kidney as witness the observations of Jolliffe and Smith who found that the urea clearance in dogs may be raised over 50 per cent by changing from a low-protein to a high-protein diet. In nephritics, Cope observed that a reduction in the protein intake from 75 to 40 grams per day was accompanied by a lowering of the urea clearance and this finding was confirmed by Goldring and his associates in normal man. In children with nephrosis, Farr observed an increase in the urea clearance when the protein rations in their diet were augmented and since the same amount of urea given by mouth failed to increase the clearance to the same degree, Farr concluded that the stimulation to renal function brought about by high-protein diets was due to products other than urea.

Very much higher protein diets, that is, a great amount in proportion to weight, have been fed to rats by numerous observers. The short span of life of these animals makes it possible to carry out experiments in a comparatively brief period that would correspond to a decade or more in the existence of a human being. Excessive protein rations in rats have resulted either in producing no effect on the kidneys, or in causing hypertrophy of the kidneys, or in bringing about renal lesions similar to those met with in Bright's disease. In order to cause these changes, huge amounts of protein were fed over long periods and extra burdens were placed upon the remaining renal tissue by unilateral nephrectomy, working withregnant animals, or resorting to both expedients. In recent years, Hanau and Ludewig and Blatherwick and Medlar showed that increasing pathologic changes occurred in the kidney remnants of partially nephrectomized rats fed increasing protein rations. The pathologic changes noted (Medlar and Blatherwick) were sclerosis of the glomeruli with or without obliteration of the capsular spaces, interstitial fibrosis, chronic inflammation and cystic dilatation of the proximal convoluted tubules. In rats with nephrotoxic nephritis produced by antikidney serum (Masugi nephritis) Farr and Smadel found the clinical course adversely influenced by increasing the amount of protein fed to these animals. A progressive destruction and scarring of both glomeruli and tubules were the important pathologic changes observed (Smadel and Farr). These results would point to the fact that there is a limit to the excretory strain to which a normal kidney may be subjected without showing hypertrophy or degenerative pathology, but it does not imply that an equal task is ever imposed on the renal parenchyma in human beings.

nor that the lesions, when they are once produced, will not be. The applicability of these experimental results to normal kidneys in man is therefore of doubtful value.

Even if the protein foods do not harm the normal kidney it will be asked, will they not damage the diseased kidney when the tissue is presumably much more vulnerable than that of the healthy renal parenchyma? Changes which occur in the kidney may be considered under two heads: hypertrophy; and inflammation and degeneration.

Hypertrophy of the kidney tissue comes about when a certain number of glomeruli and tubules are destroyed. It is a compensatory process. It is readily studied in those patients on whom unilateral nephrectomy has been carried out. The remaining kidney increases in size through an enlargement of the individual secretory units, not through their multiplication. It is well known that persons with only one remaining kidney, which hypertrophies within a short time, have no disturbances attributable to renal affection. They have on clinical tests a normal kidney function, and as time passes, although they indulge in a normal amount of protein food, they do not develop a nephritis. This is the main evidence we have of the susceptibility, or better the lack of it, of the hypertrophied glomeruli to the effect of the end-products of protein metabolism. From this it is reasonable to conclude that a compensatory hypertrophy of the glomeruli and tubules is not a contraindication to the presence of proteins in the diet.

The evidence concerning the effect of urinary excretory products upon the kidney is necessarily very limited because whatever treatment a case of chronic nephritis receives, it is not certain what influence the therapeutic measures may have had upon the progress of the lesions in the kidney. Squier and Newburgh have carried out some feeding experiments in patients with chronic nephritis. During a control period they allowed them 33 grams of protein a day, and then raised this to between 100 and 175 grams a day. The larger amounts of protein increased the albuminuria, the number of red blood cells in the urinary sediment as well as the edema, and in some instances there was an exacerbation of a retinitis. The amount of protein in the food was two to three times as high as would ordinarily be given to human beings to effect a nitrogen balance. Consequently, the strain of this diet would be greater than that ordinarily imposed. Furthermore, there is no evidence even if the albuminuria, hematuria and edema did become greater that this was necessarily a sign of an augmented pathological process, but it may have been the reaction entailed by increased physiological activity. It is worthy of note in this connection that the urine of normal control subjects also showed a rise in the number of red cells when the high-protein diet was given. In this regard, the observations of Aldrich and Boyle are of interest. In 40 children with chronic nephritis maintained on low-protein diets, they found that the institution of high-protein, high-vitamin diets was associated with definite clinical improvement. The high-protein diet

not cause elevation of the blood-pressure or increase the non-protein nitrogenous constituents of the blood as a whole. The high-protein diets used successfully in tubular nephritis (Epstein, Peters and Bulger, Barker and Kirk) go far to show that a method of feeding does not damage the kidneys. A very low-protein diet induces anemia and a lowered vitality which is generally appreciated. Barker and Kirk have carried this process a little further when they were able to produce very curious effects, that is, foreign to our preconceived therapeutic ideas, on animals. They found that a continued lowering of the blood proteins resulted in a tubular nephritis, followed by glomerular involvement and a contracted kidney.

We have had several patients with a severe chronic nephritis (in whom the blood urea nitrogen was at a level between 30 and 40 mg. per 100 cc.) who have been taking 40 to 60 grams of protein a day without having their nephritis become noticeably worse during this period. The very long life cases of congenital polycystic kidneys bear witness to the fact that even though only a remnant of kidney function remains it is not necessarily injured by having a heavy excretory burden thrust upon it. A similar observation, showing that the stress imposed upon the individual remaining glomeruli by a high blood urea nitrogen does not necessarily result in a progressive nephritis, is that of O'Hare, who found that some of his patients with marked diminution of renal function lived for a very long time. From all these facts it seems fair to draw the conclusion that, to the least, the deleterious effect of the elimination of the end-products of protein digestion both upon the normal and the diseased kidney has been overemphasized. It has not been through clinical or experimental observations that we have been led astray but through believing that the whole matter was so simple that it could be taken for granted. While the reports we have at hand cannot be considered final in some directions, still they distinctly indicate that a normal kidney will not be injured by any usual amount of protein food habitually consumed by man and that it is very doubtful whether the diseased renal parenchyma will be harmed by a similar diet.

On the other hand, it has come to be appreciated that a diet of insufficient protein content with a preponderance of fats and carbohydrates, what is called by some a lacto-vegetarian diet, brings about a deposition of fat, an obesity, with all its serious dangers, produces a secondary anemia and other debilitating conditions through loss of protein to the body. Through these changes favorism is evidenced toward cardiac insufficiency, invalidism and a premature fatal termination of the illness.

Taking all these matters into consideration, it is advised that enough protein food be given the patient to result in a favorable nitrogen balance; DuBois and Mosenthal and Richards have shown that this can be accomplished. The protein ration should not be over than 40 grams a day and it may be 10 to 20 grams higher. If a noteworthy albuminuria exists, an amount of protein should

be added to the daily allowance to make up for the loss in urine. That sufficient starch and fat be added so as to furnish adequate number of calories goes without saying. Such a diet will prevent anemia, malnutrition, and obesity, all of which are dreaded in Bright's disease. Even a higher protein intake probably be advocated when edema exists. Forty to 60 grams protein a day will not damage the kidney, and will not elevate blood pressure. The only possible contraindication to it in Bright's disease is the occurrence of a retention uremia, when we must yield to the inevitable and resort to a high-starch, low-protein diet.

Like protein food, alcohol has generally been regarded as a renal irritant. This concept dates back to the time of Bright (1827) since he assumed that the abuse of alcoholic beverages was an important factor in the causation of the diseases now known collectively under his name. It is only fair to state that although alcohol has long been implicated as an etiologic agent in Bright's disease, there is little direct or irrefutable evidence that such is actually the case. Only a negligible amount of the alcohol ingested is eliminated by the kidney, a fact which probably accounts for its minimal, if any, nephrotoxic action. Bruger, Localio and Guthrie have shown that the consumption of alcohol or alcoholic liquors in moderate amount is not harmful to the normal or diseased kidney, excepting the arteriosclerotic kidney. They found that alcohol rarely increases the proteinuria in patients with Bright's disease and that it does not increase the number of casts and red blood cells in the urine nor does it augment the impairment of renal function of patients with acute or chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis. In patients with arteriosclerotic nephritis, however, they found that alcohol produces a transient increase in the number of casts and red blood cells in the urine and temporarily aggravates the functional impairment of the kidney.

Alcohol in sensible amounts may, therefore, be used to stimulate the appetite or increase the caloric value of the food when those indications are to be fulfilled in any form of nephritis, excepting arteriosclerotic nephritis. This has been carried out successfully for many years by a number of physicians.

Renal Insufficiency.—As the glomeruli become destroyed through inflammatory processes and ultimately by fibrosis in any form of chronic Bright's disease, it is found that the remaining hypertrophied glomeruli put out a larger quantity of urine than was characteristic of the completely intact kidney. This results in a comparative polyuria and a lowering of the specific gravity. By means of the augmented urinary volume, the elimination of solids is kept at a normal level. This phenomenon is usually looked upon as a compensatory polyuria and such kidneys are regarded as instances of chronic nephritis in the compensated stage. When the glomeruli are destroyed in increasing numbers, the time comes when the amount of urine is lessened. Because of this, the total output of solids must necessarily diminish. When this occurs, the decompensated stage of chronic Bright's disease has begun.

In the earlier stages of the kidney condition, while impaired renal activity is compensated for its inability to concentrate by an increased urinary volume, it is inadvisable to carry out any far-reaching dietetic restriction. The patient usually drinks enough water to satisfy his needs and great care should be taken that a sufficient amount of fluid is drunk to produce a large volume of urine. In some instances it may become necessary to urge the patient to do this. At times the polyuria becomes so marked as to be irksome. In these cases it is frequently advisable to curtail the salt intake and sometimes the protein, so that the quantity of urine will be diminished, because there is less demand for the excretion of salt and urea. One of the main points to bear in mind in these cases is that the restriction of proteins in the diet will have a tendency to lead to anemia and that these food materials should not be diminished unduly. We have already seen that proteins do not damage the kidney and that there is no object in depriving the patient of them on that account. If they are not given in adequate amounts, they will hasten the advent of secondary anemia which is prone to bring about a fatal termination long before an uncompensated renal insufficiency will.

When the decompensated state is reached, very often the forcing of fluids will aid in the elimination of solids and keep the blood clear of an excess of urea and other non-protein nitrogenous materials. The proteins in the food need not be curtailed to any extent unless the blood urea nitrogen reaches a level of 40 mg. per 100 cc. or over. When such a stage has been reached it is advisable to cut down the proteins to 40 or 50 grams a day, and to add a corresponding number of calories to the food either in the form of carbohydrates or fats. In other words, it is indicated to increase those digestive products which will not be eliminated by the kidney and to diminish those which leave a digestive residue that is excreted by the renal route. When the urea nitrogen rises to 60 mg. per 100 cc. or higher, then it becomes necessary to resort to a diet containing even less protein and a larger amount of carbohydrates. If there is no nausea or vomiting, fats may be allowed. When these complications exist usually carbohydrates are more readily tolerated. When retention of urea has actually manifested itself a diet consisting of the minimum amount of protein and a maximum amount of carbohydrates is in order.

In these cases the management of the salt intake furnishes a rather difficult problem. It is well known that salt in these instances will result in symptoms that cannot be differentiated from those characteristic of retention uremia. On the other hand, the salt depletion of the body results in almost identical symptoms. The only possible method by which we can render these patients as comfortable as possible, in the terminal stages, is to determine the blood chlorides and give them salt when indicated and deprive them of it when the chlorides in the blood are at a normal level or above it. The optimal amount of fluids for these patients is usually about 1000 cc. The larger the quantity of urine, the more efficient will

be the elimination of solids. Water is the blandest diuretic have, and the one that is least likely to damage the kidneys. Consequently, the administration of 2 to 3 liters of fluid a day constitutes the ideal adjustment of this problem. An amount above 3 liters a day, even if eliminated, will probably not result in an increased excretion of urea or salt.

Hypertension.—An elevated arterial tension has long been recognized as an inevitable accompaniment of chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis. In most patients, the blood pressure rises when renal insufficiency supervenes and is characterized by an elevation of both systolic and diastolic tensions. At times the hypertension may become so extreme that the signs and symptoms thereby produced may closely resemble those seen in the "malignant" phase of essential hypertension. Frequently in these patients an early exit appears imminent from some vascular accident and full attention must be focussed by the physician on this phase of the problem, the exclusion of all the other accompaniments of chronic nephritis (Mosenthal and Lander).

There is no specific dietetic management for the hypertension of chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis. Suggestions as to diet which will be discussed in the section on the dietetic treatment of essential hypertension (see page 257) are applicable here.

Edema.—The edema, characteristic of chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis, is similar in nature to that occurring in the acute form. At any time there may be acute exacerbations of the chronic state which then should receive the same treatment as is accorded to edema occurring in the acute type of the disease. The prolonged existence of edema in chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis demands a salt-free, high-protein and a limited fluid diet. When marked renal insufficiency occurs, usually the edema disappears spontaneously; if it does not, a compromise has to be made between the diet demanded by the presence of the edema and a marked renal insufficiency. The latter has already been taken up under the heading of Renal Insufficiency. The possibility in this form of Bright's disease that a lowered blood albumin content (nephrotic component), weakened heart action, or anemia play a rôle, must be kept in mind and appropriate dietetic measures taken to meet such indications.

Anemia.—In those cases in which the kidney tissue is gradually destroyed by sclerosis, with a progressive formation of the primary or secondary contracted kidney, it is well known that among other changes which take place there are: (1) a diminution in renal function and (2) an advancing malnutrition and cachexia. In the order of events renal insufficiency, as judged by the blood urea nitrogen, is usually the first to appear. Generally when the urea nitrogen assumes a level of about 40 mg. per 100 cc. in the blood, a secondary anemia becomes manifest. Most cases of Bright's disease, unless they receive special treatment either by diet or transfusions of blood, are likely to succumb to the anemia and not live sufficiently long to become a prey to retention uremia.

nce we know this course of events, it seems only proper that should take every step possible to prevent the onset and the development of the anemia.

The diet has to be adjusted for each patient. In general, the rule previously mentioned that the diet should contain at least 40 to 60 grams of protein a day plus an amount equal to that lost as albumin in the urine holds good. If there is no nausea and the appetite warrants it, amounts higher than this quota may be properly indulged in. A sufficient number of calories should be provided in carbohydrates and fats to maintain nutrition.

There has been sufficient clinical observation and experimental evidence to show that sufferers with Bright's disease can very readily assimilate such amounts of protein food. The type of protein which is given these patients is intended to replenish the deficient body tissues, and to make good the loss of red blood cells and hemoglobin. According to Whipple, the most efficient foods for the regeneration of hemoglobin and red blood cells are liver and kidney of warm-blooded animals, and among fruits, apricots, peaches and prunes. The effect of meat (muscle) is good but not as valuable as liver or kidney while dairy products, fish, sea food, vegetables, fruits and many fruits are relatively inert as regards their ability to produce hemoglobin.

Only when there is a marked impairment of renal function, as indicated by a blood urea nitrogen of 50 mg. per 100 cc. or higher, should measures be taken to restrict the protein intake. It is well known that, when the blood urea nitrogen reaches a level of 60 to 80 mg. per 100 cc., a condition exists in which the renal function has almost been reduced to the vanishing point. Under these circumstances, there is always danger that the blood urea nitrogen may rise with extreme rapidity and that retention uremia may set in. When these conditions exist it is advisable to consider the patient as having signs of a threatening retention uremia, and to treat the case accordingly.

Uremia.—This is brought on by the retention of urinary excretory products and results when there is a deficient elimination of urine, whether this be due to Bright's disease, obstruction of the urinary tract, or any other condition. The exact substances that are responsible for the occurrence of retention uremia have not been isolated. Urea, uric acid, creatinine, salt and many others have been singled out, but proof has been lacking to show that they are individually blame for the development of the toxic symptoms. It is much more likely that the sum of all the crystalloids that are ordinarily excreted in the urine serves to bring about the uremia in question. Sometimes, there may be an acidosis; in other instances, these signs of acidosis are lacking and death comes on in spite of their absence; the level of the blood urea varies a great deal in cases with fatal termination; the sodium chloride may be below the normal level. What has been noted is that when this was restored to the average the symptoms were less intense. And again the sodium chloride may be above normal, substantiating the fact that an excess of salt

will induce symptoms that are identical with those of retention uremia. There are a few signs which we may use as guide-post in the dietetic and other treatment of retention uremia. One of them is a normal acid-base balance within the body for which the carbon dioxide combining-power of the blood is usually taken as an index. It is found that patients are much freer from symptoms if the sodium chloride content of the blood is kept at an approximately normal level; this requires adjustment every few days if the best results are to be achieved. Finally, we have the blood urea as an index of treatment; in a measure it is of no importance whether the blood urea is high or approaches the normal, since it is known that uremia itself in such concentrations as occur in human beings even with marked renal insufficiency will not bring about symptoms of uremic poisoning; however, the blood urea may be taken as an index of retention of all the urinary excretory products and if it is high it is permissible to assume that not only the urea but all the other substances ordinarily excreted in the urine are retained as well. The opposite holds true, namely, that if the urea is diminished the efforts in reducing the quantities of other toxic materials within the blood have also been successful.

The early and preventive treatment of this condition has already been discussed under the heading of renal insufficiency. When kidney function becomes so much curtailed that the urea nitrogen rises to a level of 60 mg. per 100 cc. or more of blood, or when acidosis exists in the presence of diminished kidney function, then we may consider the case as threatened with retention uremia. Usually the treatment of this state accomplishes no very satisfactory results. The fatal termination may be delayed almost indefinitely in many cases by a very strict regimen, but the condition of the patient is such as to render the continuance of life almost more of a burden than a pleasure to the patient himself or his friends and relatives.

Possibly the most important point in the dietetic management of these cases is that the fluid intake should be augmented to the greatest possible degree. Water and fruit juices are universally recommended. Tea and coffee are forbidden by some, but the consensus of opinion at present seems to be that they do no harm and that they are forbidden largely because of tradition. Mineral waters, plain or flavored, such as ginger ale, are excellent. Alcoholic beverages have been commonly forbidden, and on close analysis it is difficult to realize the reason for this; certainly they are not advocated in excess by any physician. In rational amounts the alcohol acts as a food which is completely oxidized to carbon dioxide and water, and leaves no residue for the kidney to excrete; this would make alcohol an ideal food and drink for the patient suffering with retention uremia. When fluid cannot be given by mouth, then, gavage, infusions, hypodermoclyses, retention enemas or the Murphy drip must be resorted to. In many cases the procedure of gavage is more efficient and less irksome to the patient than any other means of administering fluid. In this way the kidney

as the amount of fluid desired can be given without trouble with the greatest benefit toward stimulating the formation of urea. The amount of fluid necessary in these cases is from 3000 to 5000 cc. a day. Amounts above 3000 should be given for a short time only. For daily use over long periods, 3000 cc. a day is sufficient.

The diet aside from the question of fluid regulation has to be arranged in respect to the intake of proteins, total calories and sodium chloride. When nausea and vomiting or mental unrest prevent the administration of the ideal diet, then compromises have to be made between what is indicated and what is possible.

In the presence of retention uremia, it is usually necessary to reduce the proteins to the minimum even though it is realized that this does not provide a maintenance ration for the tissues. It is known that during starvation the amount of protein destroyed in the body is equivalent to about 50 grams a day, but that if carbohydrates and fats are fed, the amount of protein destroyed in the organism can be reduced to about 20 grams daily. Besides being less of a drain on the body tissues, this also requires less excretory activity from the kidneys. Consequently, a diet high in starches and fats and as low as possible in proteins is administered to these patients. It may be noted that alcohol also fulfils the same purpose as the carbohydrates or fats.

The level of the blood urea nitrogen may be utilized as an index for a low-protein, high-starch and fat diet. If the blood urea nitrogen is at a level of 65 or over, this diet should be used as intensively as possible. When the blood urea nitrogen drops below 65, the proteins may be increased somewhat, but should not be raised to a level of 40 or 50 grams until the blood urea nitrogen is at a level of 40 mg. per 100 cc. of blood.

As regards the use of sodium chloride, this should never be given in large amounts. A quantity of about 5 grams a day is usually sufficient that is required when the chlorides in the blood are somewhat diminished; if these have reached a normal or high level, a salt-free diet is indicated so that the situation may be under control. It is remarkable how many of the symptoms respond to the simple expedient of chloride regulation (Landis *et al.*).

The acidosis, as far as diet is concerned, can be controlled to a certain extent by the low-protein diet previously referred to. Such a diet, as well as the considerable amount of fluid, favors the elimination of the acid substances within the body and prevents the accumulation of them as well. The finer points in the treatment of acidosis must be judged by the carbon dioxide combining-power reaching a level of 30 volumes per cent or less. It is necessary to be very cautious so that the condition is not overcorrected and that alkalosis is not produced. The amount of alkali necessary to overcome acidosis in retention uremia is comparatively small. Each case, to a certain extent, is peculiar unto itself. If it is decided to use the alkalies to the utmost, their administration should be controlled by observance of the carbon dioxide combining-

TABLE 26.—Dietetic Management of Chronic Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis.

Period.	Symptoms and signs.	Daily diet.				
		Protein,* grams.	Carbo- hydrates.	Fat.	Total calories, cal., k.g.	Water, cc.
Compensated stage. No renal insufficiency	Compensatory polyuria may be present	60-80	As desired	As desired	30†	As desired
Decompensated stage. 1st phase	Urea N 20-40 mg. %	60-80	As desired	As desired	30	As desired
Decompensated stage. 2d phase	Urea N 40-60 mg. %	40-60	Liberal	As desired	30	As desired, if no edema exists
Decompensated stage. 3d phase	Urea N over 60 mg. % (may be over 80 mg. %)	20-40	Liberal	Reduced (poorly tolerated)	Reduced	3000
Decompensated stage. 4th phase (retention uremia)	Urea N over 80 mg. %. Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, acidosis and coma	Minimal	Forced particularly in infusions	Reduced (poorly tolerated)	Reduced	3000-5000 (infusions and clyses)
						Governed by blood chlorides and pres- ence or absence of edema Governed by blood chlorides. Edema rarely present

* The modified O'Hare diet (page 281) may be used to order the desired protein rations.

† The caloric requirements are considerably higher in children.

er of the blood, which should not be allowed to rise above 50 volumes per cent. The actual control of an acidosis by the administration of an alkaline diet has not been resorted to in the treatment of retention uremia up to the present time.

The acidosis accompanying renal insufficiency is due to the accumulation of acid salts, largely phosphates and sulphates, which are derived from the catabolism of protein material. This condition may therefore be largely controlled by regulation of the amount of protein metabolized. This is best accomplished by a system of dietetic management exactly similar to that outlined for the treatment of retention uremia, that is, a minimum protein intake combined with a forced feeding of fats and carbohydrates with the purpose of sparing the proteins as much as possible. The relief of the acidosis, incident to diminished renal activity, accomplished in this way is much more lasting and satisfactory than that effected by the administration of alkalies.

As already indicated, the acidosis of retention uremia is brought about, at least partially, by the failure of elimination of inorganic acids (phosphoric and sulfuric acids) through the kidney (for discussion of this problem see Peters, 1932). The resultant increase in serum phosphates is accompanied by a diminution of serum calcium as shown experimentally by Binger and clinically by Marriott and Crawford, Halverson and his associates, Cantarow and many others. Toxic manifestations therefore are not uncommon in retention uremia and measures must be employed to elevate the depleted serum calcium. If associated symptoms, such as nausea and vomiting, are absent, calcium in the form of one of its salts (lactate, gluconate) should be given by mouth and the foods indicated are those with high-calcium content (see page 172). However, if the gastrointestinal manifestations prohibit their use, one must resort to giving calcium intravenously, preferably in glucose infusions. The administration of parathormone or dihydrotachysterol (A.T. 10) have been employed to elevate the serum calcium by some workers, but a description of their use and the side-effects to be sought for are beyond the scope of this discussion.

It should be pointed out that muscular twitchings, apparent muscle spasms and even convulsive seizures may occur in uremia which bear no relation to serum calcium depletion. The muscular irritability is probably of central origin, resulting either from cerebral edema or ischemia.

Summary.—Table 26 summarizes the dietetic management of chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis from the early stages to retention uremia. This plan, of course, must be modified when edema and/or marked anemia are present and the manner in which this is done, has already been discussed.

Dietetic Management of Focal Glomerular Nephritis (Infectious and Embolic).

There is no dietetic therapy that directly influences these renal lesions. The only method of approach is the control of the primary process which is responsible for the nephritis.

Dietetic Management of Tubular Nephritis (Nephrosis).

General Considerations.—The renal and the extrarenal lesions in this form of nephritis are largely independent of one another (Christian, Wolbach and Blackfan). The anatomic changes in the kidneys are more or less uniform, while the accompanying disturbances vary a great deal. Consequently, there is justification for the view that the dominant clinical symptom should serve as a basis for classification. According to this scheme there are four types of tubular nephritis:

1. *Albuminuric* (febrile albuminuria).
2. *Edematous* (genuine or lipoid nephrosis).
3. *Anuric* (bichloride of mercury poisoning).
4. *Hypertensive* and *convulsive* (toxemia of pregnancy).

The dietetic treatment of the albuminuric form of tubular nephritis is that which is accorded the infection responsible for the kidney disturbance; in nephrosis or edematous tubular nephritis the edema receives almost exclusive attention; in anuric tubular nephritis, oliguria and the diminution of renal function are concentrated upon. Thus, in all these forms of nephritis, it is not the kidney that is the primary consideration from the therapeutic point of view, but some other phase of the Bright's disease. This is not the place to discuss the hypertensive or convulsive tubular nephritis, that is, the toxemia of pregnancy, as this may be considered to be largely the duty of the obstetrician and not the function of the internist. (See page 416).

Renal Insufficiency.—Impairment of kidney function is characteristically absent in lipoid nephrosis. When it does exist, we are definitely dealing with an underlying diffuse glomerular lesion which may or may not be apparent—the so-called “nephrotic component” of chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis (Bannick). The dietetic management of this condition is therefore that already described under Renal Insufficiency in Chronic Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis (page 246).

Impairment of renal function rarely occurs in the albuminuric type of tubular nephritis whereas in anuric tubular nephritis (bichloride of mercury poisoning), retention uremia is not an uncommon complication. The dietetic treatment of nitrogenous retention is described under Uremia in Chronic Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis (page 250) is applicable here.

Blood Pressure.—The albuminuric (febrile) and edematous (lipoid nephrosis) types of tubular nephritis are rarely associated with an increase in arterial tension. More commonly, the blood pressure is increased in the anuric (bichloride of mercury poisoning) type and, as its name implies, invariably elevated in the hypertensive and convulsive (toxemia of pregnancy) type of tubular nephritis.

There is no specific dietetic management of increased blood-pressure in this form of Bright's disease. Reference should be made to the Dietetic Management of Essential Hypertension (page 257) for suggestions as to diet.

Edema.—The only form of tubular nephritis in which edema plays a major rôle is that known as edematous tubular nephritis.

line nephrosis, lipoid nephrosis, chronic nephrosis, diabetes (nephrosinuricus). In these patients the edema is the predominating feature. The subcutaneous swelling is very great and there is often ascites. The pleural cavities are involved to a lesser extent. The edema in these cases is largely accompanied by a lowered albumin and an increased cholesterol content of the blood. Presumably, the diminished osmotic pressure within the blood, because of the diminished quantity of albumin therein, that is responsible for the extravasation of fluid from the blood into the surrounding tissues. Starling, in 1917, was the first to apply Starling's observations on the osmotic pressure of the serum proteins to account for the edema in the presence of depleted plasma proteins. Since that time, the clinical and experimental evidence of a confirmatory nature has accumulated. The critical level of serum albumin concentration below which edema is prone to occur is approximately 2.5 grams per cent for adults (Van Slyke *et al.*), 1.2 grams per cent for children (Van Slyke and Van Slyke) and 2 grams per cent for the dog (Shelburne). This is in accord with the original observations of Widal and Javal and of Strauss, and is usually referred to, on the rôle of sodium chloride in the production of edema are the recent contributions of Lepore, of Weech, Goettsch, and Reeves and of Torbert and Cheney. The latter two groups of workers have demonstrated a reduction in colloid osmotic pressure of serum proteins during periods of salt ingestion. Lepore has shown that the edema of plasmapheresis (protein withdrawal from the blood stream) in dogs can be hastened by an increased intake of sodium chloride.

The edema in tubular nephritis is occasionally not related to blood protein deficit but to a diffuse involvement of the capillaries, an anemia comparable to that occurring in diffuse glomerular nephritis. Usually there is no anemia and the heart action remains adequate. Consequently, there is no edema to be looked for from these sources. The dietetic treatment of this state demands the measures mentioned under the nephritic form of edema, that is, the restriction of fluid and the limitation of fluid and especially a high-protein intake. The last is of importance not only because of the diuretic effect of urea which is produced during the catabolism of the proteins, but also because it furnishes the one specific therapeutic procedure in this condition. A high-protein diet, even what may seem to be an excessively high-protein diet, is the best means we have at our command to replace the depressed albumin concentration in the blood. The rule that we should feed these patients 50 grams of protein a day plus an equivalent amount of protein to that lost in the urine may be considered the minimum which should be asked for. Probably a much higher amount of protein food should be prescribed. One hundred to 200 grams a day is not excessive.

It is appreciated that the cholesterol is remarkably elevated in the cases of Bright's disease. The natural impulse would be to increase the fat content of the diet in order to meet this symptom. However, it is very doubtful whether the high blood cholesterol is due to the inability of the organism to utilize fats, and the results

thus far obtained would point to the futility of diminishing the fat in the diet. It would seem much more likely that a high fat diet with high protein intake would be much more suitable since edema apparently is due to some form of malnutrition, and not to any lack of proper fat assimilation.

The dietetic régime in these cases is of the utmost importance. However, the use of thyroid extract and other medications, adjustment of hygienic factors and physiotherapy should not be neglected although they are not mentioned here.

It is indeed remarkable to observe, at times, how resistant edema may be to all forms of therapy, dietetic and otherwise. Diminished blood proteins fail to increase in spite of a prolonged high-protein diet, even though the nephrotic patient is able to synthesize new protein, presumably, as well as normal man and, in fact, can retain large quantities of protein and use it for purposes of storage and replacement (Keutmann and Bassett). Major states that he obtains the best results in these patients by employing a very high carbohydrate diet varying from 600 to 800 grams of carbohydrate a day. He restricts the meat and eggs and makes the diet as largely vegetable as possible, thus reducing the intake of cholesterol-containing foods. We have had no experience with this type of dietary régime.

To control the hypoproteinemia in surgical patients, Ravdin and his associates employ a high-carbohydrate, high-protein diet supplemented by thiamine chloride. There appears to be some evidence that this vitamin and perhaps the other members of the B complex as well, are factors in the maintenance of a normal serum protein concentration (Field). Ravdin employs repeated transfusion of whole blood or normal serum and the administration of a pepton hydrolysate by rectum. He suggests that hypertonic lyophile serum or amino-acid mixtures intravenously may be effective in increasing the concentration of serum proteins, although, thus far, no evidence has been presented to show that these measures are of value.

The recent observations of Madden and his co-workers working in Whipple's laboratory on essential amino-acids required for blood plasma protein regeneration must be considered when proteins are fed. Thus, the ingestion of pure gelatin, which lacks some of the essential amino-acids, is valueless for the synthesis of new blood plasma proteins unless cystine and either tryptophane or tyrosine are fed simultaneously. Holman, Mahoney and Whipple had previously demonstrated that liver and casein are efficient proteins to promote regeneration of plasma proteins, since, presumably, they contain all the essential amino-acids. According to Weech, the order of efficiency of some of the food proteins to build blood and body protein is beef serum, egg-white, beef muscle, beef liver, casein and gelatin. As desirable as beef serum may be from a nutritional point of view, it obviously lacks palatability.

Anemia.—Anemia is an uncommon finding in tubular nephritis. In the anuric (bichloride of mercury poisoning) type, it may occur as part and parcel of the toxemia and renal insufficiency. Its di-

management is similar to that described under Anemia in Chronic Diffuse Glomerular Nephritis (page 248).

Uremia.—With the exception of anuric tubular nephritis, retention of uremia is rare in this type of Bright's disease. The dietetic management of uremia in chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis (page 248) is applicable here.

Summary.—The outstanding feature of tubular nephritis, particularly the type known as edematous tubular nephritis or lipoid nephrosis, is, as its name implies, the generalized edema amounting sometimes to an anasarca. A high-protein régime is the diet of choice, the endeavor at all times being to elevate the depleted serum proteins. The use of vitamins and other supplements to the diet are suggested.

Dietetic Management of Arterial Nephritis.

Arterial and Arteriolar Sclerosis.—This renal lesion is perhaps the most commonly known as benign nephrosclerosis and is brought about by a slow and diffuse sclerotic narrowing of the afferent arterioles. The nutrition of the glomeruli suffers and many become sclerosed and are finally replaced by scar tissue. The kidney may assume a contracted appearance called by the older writers the "small contracted kidney" to differentiate it from the small scarred kidney (secondary contracted kidney) seen in the end-stages of chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis. In the majority of cases of benign nephrosclerosis, the underlying factor has been hypertension of the so-called essential variety of many years' duration. Less than 1 per cent of all cases of essential hypertension succumb to this renal complication. The dietetic management of the renal insufficiency, hypertension, anemia and uremia is similar to that described for chronic diffuse glomerular nephritis and reference should be made thereto. When edema occurs in this renal lesion it is brought about solely by cardiac failure resulting from the hypertension and attention should be centered on treatment of the heart.

Arteriolar Necrosis.—*Arteriolar necrosis* is a destructive process localized mainly in the afferent glomerular arterioles. The pathologic lesion apparently develops as the result of the injury inflicted by a very marked and prolonged hypertensive state. It entails destruction of the glomeruli and kidney function is rapidly impaired to such a degree that death through renal insufficiency is brought on. The treatment, obviously, would be a reduction of the elevated arterial pressure. The dietetic therapy is of no moment so far as the nephritis is concerned. The food intake must be modified to offset the effects of the curtailed renal activity.

Diets.

"SALT-FREE" DIET (SALT-POOR).¹

Special Precautions.—No salt, salt butter or milk is to be used in the preparation of the food nor added when eaten. Salt-free bread and sweet butter may be used as desired.

This diet has been supplied by S. Edward King, M.D., F.A.C.P., as used in the Metabolic Clinic of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital.

Omit.—Table salt, salt butter, ordinarily prepared bread, rolls and biscuits, prepared cereals, milk, buttermilk and all forms of prepared milks, cheese.

Sea foods, red meats (unless boiled and broth discarded).

All meat soups, dried and salted meats, sausages, meat puddings, meat extracts, preserved and salted fish as sardines, herrings, anchovies, caviar, pickles and all obviously salted foods.

Breakfast.

Fruits: Fruits and fruit juices without restriction (citrus fruits, grapes and grape juice are particularly recommended because of high-potassium content). Jams, jellies and marmalades.

Cereals: All cereals cooked without salt and served without milk or cream; omit all prepared cereals except those of known low-salt content.

Eggs: In any form, prepared without salt, milk or cream.

Meat and Fish: All meats and fish permitted, if prepared by thorough boiling, and the broth containing the salt, among other substances, discarded; salted, dried and preserved meats and fish, meat extracts, meat puddings, sausages and bacon, stews, ham, meat and chicken pies, chipped beef, etc., must be omitted.

Potatoes: In any form prepared without salt.

Breadstuffs: Bread, cakes, biscuits, rusk, rolls and waffles prepared without salt.

Extras: Salt-free butter, honey, maple syrup, jams, jellies, marmalades, sugar.

Liquids: Coffee, tea, cocoa and chocolate; milk is not allowed.

Luncheon, Dinner and Supper.

Soups: Vegetable soups (prepared without milk, cream or meat stock) and purées without salt or salt butter may be flavored with onion, savory herbs such as parsley, thyme and bayleaf. Meat soups are not permitted.

Meats and Fish: See Breakfast.

Vegetables: All fresh vegetables permitted without addition of salt, salted butter, milk or cheese.

Fruits: All fresh or preserved fruits, jams or jellies.

Condiments: Pepper, mustard, oil, vinegar, garlic, onions and various savory herbs.

Desserts: Cakes, pies, pastry and puddings (if prepared without salt), tapioca, cornstarch.

Beverages: Coffee, tea, beer, ales, wines, grape juice, lemonade, unsalted tomato juice, orangeade, grapefruit juice. Mineral waters are not allowed.

Suggestions.—Exclusive of salted foods and table salt, most of the salt in an ordinary diet enters through the medium of bread, salted butter and milk. If these are omitted or satisfactorily prepared, a salt-poor diet adequate for all ordinary purposes may be obtained. McLester states that a diet in which no salt is added to

Orders:

Our total score for the day should be _____ portions of Group I.
 Our total amount of fluid should be _____ glasses or cups a day.
 Our directions for the use of salt are as follows: _____

Use no spices.

Group I.—Each Full Portion Counts 1.

	Full portion.		Full portion.
Bread, any kind	1 av. slice	Baked beans	1 T.
Added wheat	1 biscuit	Lima beans	1½ T.
Added biscuit	5 crackers	Green peas	2 T.
Meal	2 T.	Canned corn	2½ T.
Ed rice	3 T.	Mushrooms	4 T.
Meal mush	4 T.	Macaroni	4½ T.
Flour of wheat	6 T.	Pudding (except	
Flour	6 T.	cornstarch or	
Flour	6 T.	tapioca, see	
Butter, cream or		Group II)	1 helping
Buttermilk	½ glass	Pie	1 helping
	1 small egg	Cheese	1 T.
Or meat, when		Ice-cream	1 T.
Not to equal	1 T.	Custard	1 T.

Group II.—No Restrictions.

Vegetables.	Fruits.	Miscellaneous.
Carrots	Apples	Arrowroot
Beans	Applesauce	Arrowroot biscuit
Cauliflower	Bananas	Butter
Broccoli	Blueberries	Candy
Bean sprouts	Dates	Cornstarch
Peas	Figs	Honey
Flower	Grapes	Lard
Try	Grapefruit	Maple sugar
Turners	Lemons	Maple syrup
Brussels	Muskmelon	Olive oil
Turnips	Nectarines	Sugar
Onions	Oranges	Syrup
Tomatoes	Peaches	Tapioca
Pumpkin	Pears	
Abalone	Pineapple	
Beach	Plums	
Asparagus	Prunes	
Green beans	Raspberries	
Net potatoes	Rhubarb	
Onions	Strawberries	
Onions	Watermelon	

the food after it reaches the table and no unusually salted food included contains about 2 to 4 grams of sodium chloride daily.

Fluids must be restricted in cases with edema. Six hundred about 3 glasses or cups of fluid, is the minimal amount that is tolerable, but the quantity may have to be increased due to increased thirst.

It is impossible to prescribe a perfectly salt-free diet, due to the fact that the salt content of vegetables and other foods cannot be successfully and completely removed in their preparation. Hence the term "salt-free" is advisedly used.

Most of the salt substitutes are to be omitted. The adverse criticisms of these various preparations are due to the fact that almost invariably they contain a greater or less amount of the chemical sodium radical. It has been found that ammonium chloride serves adequately as a salt substitute in most cases.

MODIFIED O'HARE DIET.

The following diet has been modified from that suggested by Dr. J. P. O'Hare. It has been used with success in the diet management of Bright's disease for many years in the Metabolic Clinic of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital. Each of the portions in Group I contains approximately 4 grams of protein; the foods listed in Group II contain a negligible amount of protein and are, therefore, not limited. Thus if it is desired that the patient take 60 grams of protein daily, he is instructed to plan his diet in such a manner that 15 portions of the foods in Group I are consumed every day; those in Group II are not restricted and may be taken liberally.

Any combination of the foods listed may be selected. The foods not specified must be avoided. The foods in Group I are restricted according to stated orders; those in Group II are not limited.

CANKER SORES.

Discussion.—Aphthous stomatitis is considered elsewhere (page 290) but an additional factor is stressed here. These minute ulcers occur in some individuals with considerable regularity just prior to or during the first days of the menstrual flow. Such canker sores are usually clear spontaneously with remarkable rapidity with the passing of the menstrual period. Where they persist, involution of the lesions within forty-eight hours may be secured with two daily 15-grain doses of bone phosphate. Excellent results have been obtained with friable tablets consisting of equal parts of calcium phosphate and purified bone phosphate (Grace, 1933).

High-calcium, high-vitamin diets are recommended but cannot be guaranteed to be effective. So long as the etiology of the condition is obscure, only trial-and-error methods are available for treatment.

CHLOROSIS.

Discussion.—The dietary requirement indicated in chlorosis is subject to much controversy. The consensus of opinion, however, is that there is an undetermined dysfunction of the hematopoietic system. Chlorosis is evidenced by a rather characteristic blood picture in which the hemoglobin is abnormally low and the individual hemoglobin content of each red cell is moderately less than normal. This clinical entity is regarded by many as being of the boundary anemia type and should be so treated dietetically.

omit.

Alcoholic drinks	Marmalades and jams
Broths	Pastries
Cakes	Pies
Candies	Preserved foods
Carbonated beverages	Shell-fish
Fried foods	Spices
Hot breads and biscuits	Thickened gravies

omit.

Foods high in bulk but low in caloric value.

Food mixtures which are generally acknowledged as exhibiting poor culinary judgment, such as stale or left-over meats covered with highly seasoned gravies.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked whole grain cereal with milk and sugar
Egg, except fried
Whole grain toast *or* roll with butter
Milk *or* cocoa

Luncheon:

Choice: meat, fish, eggs, *or* cheese
Cooked vegetable with butter
Salad with dressing
Whole grain bread with butter
Fresh *or* stewed fruit
Milk

Dinner:

Soup
Meat *or* fish
Potato
Cooked vegetable with butter
Salad with dressing
Whole grain bread with butter
Fruit *or* simple dessert
Milk

Nutrition should be derived from a full regular diet to which is added an abundance of animal protein. This should be augmented by the foods containing high proportions of iron, copper and manganese. This high-protein dietary has been universally acknowledged as being good practice and effective.

The foods especially recommended are those suggested under Secondary Anemia.

NOTE. — Further menus may be found under Secondary Pernicious Anemia.

Suggestions. — Constipation is frequently associated with chlorosis and will necessitate the increasing of roughage, which action can be readily included in the preceding dietary. Refer to Atonic Constipation and Foods Highest in Cellulose.

The fluid content of the menu will be dependent on the presence or absence of edema. In the presence of edema, salt should be markedly restricted and a limitation of fluids should be instituted. It might be wise to prohibit the use of bicarbonate of soda and other so-called salt substitutes, which in themselves are capable of increasing the osmotic tissue tension (due to the sodium radical so commonly present).

Naturally, the caloric value of this diet will be dependent on the state of nutrition of the individual. It is often necessary for the patients who are underweight to augment the three daily meals with interval feedings. Suggestions may be found in the section on Underweight (page 558 and 559).

Reference should be made to Foods Most Effective in Increasing Hemoglobin; Foods Highest in Copper, Iron and Manganese.

CHOLECYSTITIS.

(Refer to page 382 and 385.)

CHOLELITHIASIS.

(Refer to page 387.)

CHOREA.

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Discussion. — Chorea is a disorder of childhood characterized by irregular, involuntary purposeless movements of the limbs or facial muscles. These movements are spasmodic in character and often accompanied by irritability and loss of power in the affected muscles.

When the disease is severe, the patient becomes markedly emaciated. This should be prevented by careful dietary supervision. While lighter than in health, the diet must be of equal caloric value to replace the energy expended in muscular movements. Patients are required to secure the ingestion of sufficient food as these patients have difficulty in swallowing.

The dietary should consist of simple, nutritious foods. During the active stage, milk, eggs and starchy foods, such as rice, cereals and bread are to be given; during the convalescent stage, the diet should be augmented by nitrogen foods in the form of meats, cheeses

ken and fish. Malt, wheat-germ and cod-liver oil are very useful. Combat the secondary anemia which often develops from prolonged confinement in bed, liver and vegetables high in iron, copper and manganese should be incorporated in the convalescent diet. (Refer Foods Highest in Iron, Copper and Manganese.) The diet should be scrutinized for its vitamin content and rectified if subnormal in any particular.

Suggestions.—The choreic movements may sometimes become so great that restraint is required in order to feed the patient. In connection, hydrotherapy in the form of warm baths may be employed, and feeding should take place immediately upon the conclusion of the bath while the child is still quiescent.

CIRRHOSSIS OF THE LIVER.

(Refer to page 385.)

CELIAC SYNDROME

VINCENT LARKIN, M. D.

The celiac syndrome is a chronic nutritional disturbance of varied etiology characterized by loss of appetite, loss of weight, irritability, abdominal distension and the passage of abnormal stools. The chronic onset of symptoms may usually be traced back to the age of one to twelve months. The full blown syndrome is more often observed in the second year of life, and is often precipitated by intercurrent infection.

Etiology.—Many etiologies have been pointed out as capable of producing the syndrome, among them being mechanical obstruction of the intestine, tuberculous mesenteric adenitis, intestinal distal infection, bacillary dysentery, focal infections outside of the intestinal tract, food allergies, and cystic fibrosis of the pancreas. These numerous causes, however, account for only a small per cent of the patients presenting the celiac syndrome. The etiology is not known in the majority of cases. The deficiency of elements of the vitamin B complex and liver extract which are present in all these diets has not been definitely relegated to its place as a primary or secondary cause of symptoms. The similarity of the celiac syndrome and sprue in their symptoms and laboratory data has been pointed out by many observers but the identity of the two diseases has not been established.

Discussion.—The clinical picture of the celiac syndrome is usually typical: (1) Loss of appetite amounting to complete refusal of food. (2) Loss of weight, most prominent in the axillary and abdominal folds and almost complete loss of fat from the buttocks. (3) Abdominal distention. (4) Marked irritability. (5) Susceptibility to respiratory infections. (6) The passage of frequent, foul, light colored, mushy or loose, greasy or frothy stools. Both sexes are equally involved and the disease is found in both high and low income families. The disease does not occur in the infant who is still breast fed.

The symptoms and physical abnormalities are a direct result of the child's relative inability to absorb fatty acids and carbohydrates. These digestive deficiencies are readily shown by laboratory tests. Gastric and intestinal enzymes are present in normal quantities. Small intestinal (jejunum ileum) motility and segmentation are defective, as seen by clumping of barium on the roentgenogram; this is possibly due to deficiency of vitamin B. Fats are split primarily to fatty acids and glycerol, but only 65 to 85 per cent of the fatty acids are absorbed (normal 90 to 98 per cent). The free fatty acids often combine with calcium, to be excreted in the stool as soaps. Low absorption curves of fat soluble vitamin A are observed as part of the defective absorption of fatty acids and other fat soluble substances. Low glucose absorption curves are often found in the active celiac. Polysaccharides, however, are often not digested well in the hypomotile intestine and may be excreted, as undigested starch. Protein is well-digested and absorbed.

The loss of fat and carbohydrate in the stools produces malnutrition in the child. The fatty acids tend to be irritating to the bowel, and produce an excess of water in the stool as well as a fatty appearance. Further, the loss of fat soluble vitamins by defective absorption, of calcium by combination with fatty acids, of water and water soluble vitamins by diarrhea, contribute to the poor nutrition and vitamin and mineral deficiencies. Fermentation of undigested carbohydrate produces large amounts of intestinal gas and abdominal distention.

Complications.—Malnutrition, rickets, scurvy, iron deficiency anemia, osteoporosis, vitamin A deficiency, are generally present in the full-blown, untreated celiac. Infections, particularly respiratory, occur frequently and may precipitate a severe exacerbation of all symptoms. This is called the "celiac crisis" and is marked by profuse diarrhea, severe dehydration, acidosis, and a decrease in motility of the small intestine amounting almost to a paralytic ileus.

Treatment.—The management of the celiac child is primarily dietary and secondarily treatment of complications. Dietary management has been divided into three merging stages which depend on the gradually increasing ability of the treated celiac to digest food.

1. First stage: Protein, which is digested and absorbed without difficulty by all celiacs, is the predominant food of this stage. This stage may last from a few days to a few weeks.
2. Second stage: More protein and simple carbohydrate are gradually added as the patient's appetite remains good and stools are normal. This may last for a few months to a year or more.
3. Third stage: Complex carbohydrates and later fats are added to the diet until the normal diet for the age is reached.

Certain general rules should be followed in adding new foods to the diet. A new food should always be started in small quantities. If the food is tolerated, the quantity may gradually be increased.

not tolerated, it may be withdrawn without causing a serious back in the child's condition. The exact order in which the new foods are added is not as important as making sure that some order is followed. The first foods given are protein, then simple carbohydrates, later complex carbohydrate and finally fats, but a choice may be made as to the order in which predominately protein, carbohydrate and fat foods are to be added. A satisfactory diet may be set up for the more severe celiac by starting in stage I, while the milder celiac may be started in stage II of the celiac diet. The following schedule will be found to be effective in the majority of cases:

Stage I.—If there is diarrhea, parenteral feedings should replace oral feedings. When the diarrhea is improving a weak formula may be started, such as Mead's Powdered Protein Milk or Acidulated Protein, SMA, in a dilution of one tablespoonful to each 4 or 5 ounces of water. The total volume of formula is determined by the child's fluid requirement. After a few days of this feeding the stools begin to return to normal and the patient becomes hungry. The powdered milk is then increased by 1 or 2 tablespoonfuls a day until a ratio of powdered milk to water of 1:2.5 is reached. Skim milk, fortified with 2 or 3 tablespoonfuls of calcium caseinate (casec), may also be used but the powdered milks appear to give more consistently good results. After several days of good appetite and normal stools, the patient is usually able to take other foods.

Stage II.—*Vitamin C*, in the form of ascorbic acid or as orange juice, and *vitamins A* and *D*, in a fish liver oil concentrate are well-tolerated at this point. Fifty milligrams of ascorbic acid or 3 to 4 ounces of fresh orange juice are given; oleum percomorpheum may be given in doses of 15 drops twice a day, or an equivalent amount of other fish liver oil concentrate. *Scraped beef* is a suitable protein food to introduce at this time. *Banana* next, either baked or very ripe and raw, contains an easily digested carbohydrate, and may be given cautiously. If taken without difficulty the quantity may be increased slowly to 3 to 6 bananas a day. Bananas are in no sense specific for celiac disease, but rather provide a safe carbohydrate food. Honey, glucose, levulose, and corn syrup are also well-tolerated but the ripe banana is more easily taken by the celiac. *Banana powder*, 3 to 4 tablespoonfuls may be added to the formula when the raw banana is well-tolerated and the child is still hungry. *Age cheese*, *gelatine*, and *egg white* are protein foods which may be added to the menu. *Pureed vegetables*, 3 per cent carbohydrate group, add variety to the menu after these other foods. Other pureed vegetables of higher carbohydrate content may be given. *Other meats*, like lamb chop, liver, chicken, turkey, add readily-assimilated protein to the diet and make it more palatable as the child tires of the restricted number of foods previously allowed. Finally, fresh fruit, minus the coarse skins, again add to the carbohydrate intake.

Stage III.—After several months of uninterrupted freedom from celiac symptoms the diet may be increased by the addition of complex

carbohydrates and finally fats. *Breadstuffs, crackers, cereals, and potato* may be added consecutively if tolerated. *Unstarchy vegetables, fruits, and meats* may be given with impunity. *Whole milk* may be substituted without gradual change for the protein milk formula. *Butter, fatty meats* may be given last.

Sample Menus

Early Second Stage

<i>Breakfast</i> (1)		(2)	
Mashed ripe banana	1	Orange juice	($\frac{1}{2}$ orange)
with		Cottage cheese	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Cottage cheese	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	Mashed ripe banana	1
Protein milk		Protein milk	
<i>Dinner</i>			
Sieved liver	4 tblsps.	Scraped beef patty	1
Mashed ripe banana	1	Mashed ripe banana	1
Cottage cheese	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	Protein milk	
Protein milk			
<i>Supper</i>			
Chopped coddled egg whites	2	Cottage cheese	$\frac{1}{2}$ Cup
Mashed ripe banana	1	with	
Protein milk		Mashed ripe banana	1
		Protein milk	

Sample Menus

Late Second Stage

<i>Breakfast</i> (1)		(2)	
Orange juice	(1 orange)	Orange juice	(1 orange)
Banana, ripe, well mashed	1	Cottage cheese	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Soft boiled egg	1	with	
Zwiebach	1	Mashed, ripe banana	1
Protein milk		Zwiebach	1
		Protein milk	
<i>Dinner</i>			
Minced veal	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	Minced chicken	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Carrot puree	$\frac{1}{4}$ cup	Pea puree	$\frac{1}{4}$ cup
Zwiebach	1	Zwiebach	1
Mashed, ripe banana	1	Banana, ripe	1
with		Protein milk	
Cottage cheese	$\frac{1}{4}$ cup		
Protein milk			
<i>Supper</i>			
Scraped beef patty	1	Coddled eggs	2
Green bean puree	$\frac{1}{4}$ cup	Asparagus tip puree	$\frac{1}{4}$ cup
Zwiebach	1	Zwiebach	1
Banana, ripe	1	Banana, ripe	1
Protein milk		Protein milk	

Treatment with parenteral liver extract and vitamin B complex on alternate days for three to six weeks has been recommended by Blackfan and his associates as a means of effecting a cure of celiac syndrome, with or without diet. Complete recovery was effected by these workers in their series of cases but this result has not yet been completely duplicated by others. Nevertheless, a modified regimen of intramuscular injection of a B complex — liver con-

trate combination 3 times weekly for three to four weeks is to be recommended in the routine treatment of celiac syndrome.

Prognosis.—Celiac syndrome is marked by remissions and exacerbations, the latter often precipitated by acute infections or dietary indiscretions. The ultimate prognosis of the properly treated celiac is complete recovery in a period varying from a few months to a year or more.

OTHER CELIAC-LIKE AFFECTIONS

Starch Intolerance.—A milder condition, similar to celiac disease, has been described by Anderson under the name of "starch intolerance". This is a more common condition than the celiac syndrome and consists of recurring bouts of watery diarrhea, accompanied by respiratory infections and a fair state of nutrition. It begins about six to nine months of age and has a prolonged course. The abnormal stools contain large quantities of undigested starch granules but no excess of fat. Examination of pancreatic juice reveals a deficiency of the starch splitting enzyme, amylase. The most recent concept developed by Anderson of the relationship of celiac disease and starch intolerance postulates that the starch intolerance is a constitutional difficulty in all cases. Those patients who manifest only starch intolerance are to be considered as having a mild form of the celiac disturbance. Those patients who develop the typical symptoms of celiac disease are to be considered as having a more severe form of the constitutional starch intolerance plus a secondary deficiency of the vitamin B complex and perhaps other unknown factors which, in turn, account for the steatorrhea and other severe symptoms of the celiac syndrome. Treatment of this latter group with liver extract and vitamin B complex overcomes the steatorrhea, malnutrition, and other severe symptoms of the celiac syndrome, but leaves the patient with his starch intolerance.

Treatment.—Treatment consists of complete elimination of starch from the diet. On a starch free diet, the infant passes normal stools despite recurring respiratory infections. Starch containing foods may be introduced into the diet after several months. Starch containing foods in the infant's diet are cereals, breadstuffs, rice, macaroni, and potato.

Cystic Fibrosis of the Pancreas.—Cystic fibrosis of the pancreas produces 3 clinical syndromes in infancy: (1) meconium ileus, (2) malnutrition with chronic respiratory infections, (3) celiac syndrome with chronic respiratory infection. There is a gross deficiency of the external secretion of the pancreas and as a result digestion of all foodstuffs suffers. There is inadequate digestion and absorption of protein, fat, carbohydrate, and vitamins. Growth is markedly retarded and severe, often fatal, pulmonary infections by *staphylococcus aureus hemolyticus* take hold. Absorption of vitamin A is very poor and probably contributes to the lack of resistance to pulmonary infection.

The diet must be high caloric, high vitamin with an excess of protein and carbohydrate because they are partially lost in stool. Decreasing the fat intake to a minimum increases the absorption of protein. Pancreatin granules, enteric coated (U. S. P. Pancreatin), provide some of the lacking pancreatic enzymes and increase the absorption of fat and protein. The following diet constituents are recommended:

- (1) Calories—100 to 150 calories per kilogram
- (2) Protein—25 per cent of the total calories (normal 15 per cent)
- (3) Carbohydrate—about 50 per cent of the total calories (normal 50 per cent)
- (4) Fat—low, about 20 to 25 per cent of total calories (normal 35 per cent)
- (5) Vitamins high:
 - A and D—oleopercomorpheum, 15 drops 3 times a day
 - C—50 to 100 milligrams
 - B Complex

- (6) Pancreatin—if used in formula, 1 gram per 8 ounces of formula; if used in food, 3 to 6 grams as enteric coated granules.

The foods which are used are those of the second stage of the celiac diet. These patients, however, must remain on this diet indefinitely, as there is no way in which they can manufacture their own pancreatic enzymes.

Pulmonary infections are best treated with penicillin and sulfadiazine. Daily doses of sulfadiazine may be given prophylactically to keep the patients free of recurrence of pulmonary infections.

REPRESENTATIVE DIETS FOR PATIENTS WITH PANCREATIC DEFICIENCY

A. Patients Under the Age of 1 year: 150 Calories Per Kg. Bodily Weight.

Breakfast

- 3-4 oz. (90-120 cc.) fruit juice (orange, grapefruit or tomato) or pureed fruit
- 1 egg, soft cooked
- 1 slice of zwieback (may be garnished with jelly)
- 1 mashed ripe banana if appetite is good
- 6-8 oz. (180-240 cc.) formula
- 1 level teaspoon pancreatin

Dinner

- 1-2 tablespoons or more of minced lean meat, broiled, boiled, or roasted only
- 1-2 tablespoons or more of pureed vegetable
- 1 slice of zwieback (optional)
- Dessert: pureed, cooked or canned fruit, gelatin or junket made with skim milk
- 6-8 oz. formula
- 1 level teaspoon pancreatin

per

-2 tablespoons of pot cheese or meat; the pot cheese may be flavored with honey, jelly, or banana powder

-2 tablespoons or more of pureed vegetable

Dessert, zwieback, formula and pancreatin as at noon

ning

-8 oz. formula

Formula: Calculate to provide two-thirds of total calories; Protein k, to provide three-fourths of formula calories; Banana powder, provide one-fourth of formula calories

Aminins: Concentrate of vitamins A and D sufficient to provide 1000 U. S. P. units of vitamin A per day, given in two or three doses
Amin B complex; Ascorbic acid, 0.05 gm., if fruit juice is not taken.

B. Patients Aged 1-2 years

A trial with skim milk is made soon after the twelfth month for infants who are doing well; it is usually well-tolerated. Fish is added next. One small serving of starch per meal is added. The transition to the diet for older infants is made gradually.

C. Patients Aged 3-4 years and Older

akfast

Fruit or fruit juice

- $\frac{2}{3}$ cup cooked whole grain cereal with skim milk and sugar

-2 eggs, prepared in any way except fried

1 slice of bread or toast, preferably whole grained, with jelly or honey, without butter

or more glasses of skim milk, may be flavored with sugar, cocoa, vanilla, etc.

1 level teaspoon of pancreatin

mer

Large serving (3-4 teaspoons or more) of lean meat, poultry or fish, broiled, boiled, or roasted, all visible fat to be cut off

3 or more tablespoons of cooked vegetables

small serving of starch, as potato, rice or macaroni

or more glasses of skim milk

Dessert: cooked or canned fruit, gelatin, junket made of skim milk, custard, puddings, or sponge cake

1 level teaspoon of pancreatin

unch or supper

Same as dinner, except that pot cheese may be substituted for meat

tween meals

Any food item included in this list, except starch. Hard candy, sponge cake and arrowroot biscuit may be given

etc. The child may receive second portions of any item except starch. Any of the allowed foods may be served in the form of soup or frozen desserts, if desired.

amins Same as those given the first year.

D. General Instructions

Rule for parents:

1. Include only the foods on the list.
2. Do not serve raw vegetables and fruits other than orange, grapefruit, apple, banana, pear, peach and lemon juice.
3. Do not use any packaged food of which you do not know the ingredients or which contains substances not on the allowed list.
4. Do not use flour, corn starch, etc., in the preparation of food without reducing the feeding of starch.
5. Remove all visible fat on meats; broil, boil, or roast only.
6. Do not use fats or oils of any kind in the preparation of food.
7. Use only milk which is commercially skimmed. It is not enough to pour the cream from the top of a bottle of whole milk. Use 1 quart (1 L.) daily.

Foods Allowed

<i>Meats</i>	<i>Vegetables</i>	<i>Fruits</i>
Beef	Tomato juice	Strained orange juice
Lamb	String beans	Pineapple juice
Veal	Squash	Grapefruit juice
Liver	Carrots	Grape juice
Kidney	Peas	Lemon juice
Chicken	Asparagus	Lime juice
Turkey	Cauliflower	Juice of berries
Fish	Beets	Bananas
Shellfish	Spinach	Scraped or peeled apples, pears, and peaches
oyster	Mushrooms	Cooked or canned apples, apricots, pears, peaches, pineapple
clam	Onions	Strained cranberry juice
shrimp	Beet greens	
crab	Eggplant	
lobster	Broccoli	
<i>Starches: 1 serving per meal only</i>	<i>Miscellaneous</i>	<i>Miscellaneous</i>
Bread, preferably whole grained	Egg	Lollipops or hard candy
Potato, rice, noodles, macaroni, spaghetti	Pot cheese	Fruit ices
Lima beans, if potato, etc., are omitted	Soup without fat	Cake without fat - sponge, angel food
Split peas, if other starch is omitted	Jelly or jam without seeds	Gelatin
	Marshmallows	Cocoa
	Sugars - white sugar, brown sugar, corn syrup, honey, maple sugar, molasses	Junket
		Custard, including frozen foods

Foods Not Allowed

<i>Meats and Fats</i>	<i>Miscellaneous</i>
Butter, oleomargarine	Raw vegetables or fruits not on list
Fat meats, bacon, pork	Luncheon meats, salami, etc.
Lard, Crisco, Spry	Cream candies, chocolates
Fried foods	Crackers
Peanut butter	Cookies, doughnuts, pie
Cheese other than pot cheese	Gravy with fat or flour
Chocolate	Corn
Salad oils, olive oil, mayonnaise	Beans - navy or kidney
Duck or goose	Cake containing fat

For older children, add the following, if trial shows tolerance: apples, melons, berries, small amounts (1 teaspoon) of peanut butter, and nuts, preferably as flavoring.

COLITIS, ULCERATIVE.

Z. BERCOVITZ, M.D.

Introduction.—The problem of nutrition in chronic ulcerative colitis is one of the most difficult in the entire field of therapy. Frequent bowel movements and lack of appetite have lowered the morale of the patient to the point where coöperation in the matter of diet is almost impossible to secure. Generally, the patient has already failed to improve on various diets which have been tried for longer or shorter periods of time. Since the urge to defecate followed the ingestion of many different types of food, the patient has accumulated a long list of distress-provoking foods most of which are erroneously held to be the cause of his symptoms.

Discussion.—Chronic ulcerative colitis is an inflammatory condition of the bowel characterized by frequent movements with or without the passage of blood, mucus or pus and usually associated with bouts of fever, abdominal pain of varying degree and changes in the roentgenographic and sigmoidoscopic findings in the lower bowel. Although the etiologic factors are unknown, several possibilities have been suggested. Occasionally chronic ulcerative colitis followed what appeared to be acute bacillary dysentery. In some instances, *Endamoeba histolytica* has been found either at the onset or during the course of the illness. Various bacterial agents have been discovered in patients with this condition and been assigned an etiologic rôle. In still others there seems to be evidence of viruses related to that of lymphopathia venereum and a positive Widal test or positive reaction with bowel antigen has been obtained. Endogenous factors may be primary or secondary; in any event, they must not be passed over lightly but withal they should not be given undue importance. Unquestionably vitamin deficiency is coincident with chronic ulcerative colitis. It is not clear, however, whether the deficiency antedates the intestinal lesion to the extent of being a causative factor or is merely a result of depletion of body stores and failure of replenishment.

In every case of chronic diarrhea, diagnostic differentiation must be made between ulcerative colitis and amebic dysentery, bacillary dysentery, acute gastro-enteritis due to dietary indiscretions, carcinoma, lymphogranuloma venereum, multiple polyposis, diverticulitis, fistula, and the deficiency diseases.

Fundamental Ulcerative Colitis Regimen.—If the diagnosis of chronic ulcerative colitis is established and the patient can be hospitalized, a basic routine should be instituted before any dietary change is considered. This involves attention to the patient's general care as a whole and includes:

Glucose infusions (3 per cent in physiologic saline) intravenously by the drop method.

2. Blood transfusions at frequent intervals, as every second third day.

3. Rest in bed with sufficient sedation to secure cessation of desirable mental or physical activity.

4. Liver therapy intramuscularly in potent dosage.

Of these procedures transfusion is most important since it provides essential proteins and corpuscular elements; blood may be given daily in 250- to 300-cc. amounts or every other day in 500-cc. transfusions. If it is necessary for a patient to subsist on glucose, it should be recognized that lack of thiamin may become apparent (reference page 523). Although thiamin chloride may be administered in daily doses of 50 to 100 mg., use of the entire B complex is more desirable.

A high-vitamin, high-protein diet is required by these patients. Hydrochloric acid is definitely indicated, especially if there is evidence of failure of gastric digestion.

The Problem of Feeding a Patient With Chronic Ulcerative Colitis

—The disease presents a pathologic state of the lining of the large bowel and physiologic disturbances throughout the remainder of the gastro-intestinal tract. The problem of nutrition in these patients involves the relationship between the intake of food and the absorption of sufficient nutriment to sustain body tissues, including the bowel wall. It is a common experience to find that cooperative patients who are taking an entirely adequate diet not only fail to gain weight but actually continue to lose. Obviously these patients with chronic ulcerative colitis are unable to utilize the food ingested to its fullest extent. Prescription of a diet, therefore, is the least part of the problem of feeding these patients.

When food is taken into the mouth and swallowed, a defecation reflex occurs normally. In ulcerative colitis the desire to evacuate the bowels may be exaggerated, but the patient should be reassured that food eaten has not immediately passed from him. In fact it has been shown by Roentgen-ray studies in both the small and large intestines that definite stasis exists in some of these cases.

Solid food is generally denied patients with a chronically inflamed bowel in the hope that irritation will thus be reduced to a minimum. Soft or liquid diets, however, are incapable of restoring the appetite which is the first step in the direction of recovery. It is a physiologic fact that solid food within the stomach increases the tone of that organ and consequently the desire for food. Likewise it should be remembered that, outside of a few very coarse fibrous items, the average diet reaches the large intestine in a semi-fluid state.

Tart foods, as grapefruit and lemon, improve the appetite without irritating the colon. These fruits leave a "clean" taste in the mouth and are highly beneficial to the stomach.

Patients with chronic ulcerative colitis do not want to eat. Since they are nauseated by the sight or thought of food, it is a task to find something which will appeal to them and tempt the taste. Neither the eye nor the stomach should be overburdened by the presentation of a full tray. Small attractive servings of one or two

s at a time encourage the patient to eat especially where inter-
of rest prevent the development of weariness from overexertion
the meal.

Dietary Treatment.—The lactofarinaceous diet customarily em-
ed is wholly inadequate for maintenance purposes, has a bad
biologic effect upon the patient, and delays recovery. It may,
ever, be useful for a day or two during exacerbation of the symp-
s or at the onset of the disease. The foods allowed include well-
ed macaroni and other pastes, rice boiled almost to gruel con-
sistency, and strained oatmeal or refined wheat cereals. Thereafter,
patient should be offered a high-protein, low-residue diet with a
tiful supply of vitamins. The caloric need is met by the addition
archy and fatty foods.

ood results have been obtained with beef which has been
ped, then chopped fine with a cleaver or knife. Such meat,
led to suit the taste, may be served twice a day.

eggs are also an excellent source of protein and can be prepared
variety of ways or disguised in other foods. Tart jelly served
a frequent egg dishes allows for variety and "cuts" the taste
he egg. The jelly is also a desirable accompaniment of meat or
ken.

oddled and poached eggs are particularly recommended at the
inning of treatment. It is often necessary to instruct the
ent's family how to coddle an egg. The egg is immersed for
to six minutes in water which has been raised to the boiling
t, then removed from the heat. This is sufficient cooking for
egg which originally was at room temperature.

he use of milk as such is debatable; often it appears to cause gas,
ention, discomfort, and diarrhea but there are occasions when
k becomes the mainstay of the diet. Buttermilk, however, can
n be taken without objectionable sequelæ. Frequently, weak
is the only beverage which can be allowed without restriction,
then without milk. Coffee is permitted no more than once daily.
alted milk prepared with water, if necessary, rather than milk
vides a nourishing beverage between meals. A tablespoonful of
dered malted milk is beaten to a smooth mixture with 3 to
nces of water, then an egg is added and thoroughly whipped.
e attractiveness of this beverage may be enhanced with vanilla
cream.

alorie-rich fluids, such as the foregoing, are substituted as far as
sible for water. When beef tea is used for stimulating appetite,
volumetric capacity of the patient should be considered and
vance made for the ingestion of more nourishing food (refer to
e 169).

he desire for food is frequently stimulated by the judicious use
art fruit juices. Unsweetened, fresh or canned grapefruit from
ch the membrane has been removed is as satisfactory as the
e. Lemon is well tolerated even on an empty stomach. It can
given two or three times a day as lemonade or diluted with hot

tea. This is an excellent means of introducing vitamin C into the diet.

Tomato juice is best served with meals. It is recommended that the final allowance of 6 ounces daily be reached gradually, commencing with $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce at the midday meal and increasing the amount by a like amount until 3 ounces are taken with both the noon and evening meals.

As a rule, all vegetables must be puréed. Ingenuity should be employed in serving these attractively. The less colorful ones may be disguised in cream soups or molded in gelatin and served with salad dressing. A small slice of pickle, when carefully chewed, will add zest to the meal and usually do the patient no demonstrable harm. By the same token, young and very tender string beans may be allowed. The important point is that food fiber must be thoroughly softened by cooking. It is recognized, of course, that canning is often more effective in this regard than is home-cooking.

Both the caloric and vitamin content of the diet can be enhanced with avocado accompanied by mayonnaise. This fruit is smooth enough to require no preparation before it is served.

Although puréed fruits in general are often prescribed for ulcerative colitis, such a wide selection has not proven beneficial in our experience. Well-ripened bananas (refer to page 140) probably deserve first place in any list of permitted fruits. Apples, such as the *Delicious* variety, may be given sparingly if scraped or chewed very thoroughly. In the beginning only one-quarter of a peeled and well-cored apple should be tried. Fruits desired by the patient may be introduced cautiously in limited amounts. Stewed prunes and apple sauce are frequently not well tolerated.

The ambulatory patient is provided with a copy of the accompanying form:

DIET for..... DATE.....

INSTRUCTIONS.

1. The object of this diet is to provide foods which will be easily digested, readily absorbed, and leave a minimum of residue to irritate the bowels.
2. Your full coöperation in the matter of diet is vital for the proper handling of your condition.
3. Make no changes without consultation. EAT ONLY THE FOODS ON THE PERMITTED LIST.
4. Please bring this diet list with you at each office visit.
5. Eat some of the following foods at 10 A.M., 4 P.M., and bedtime: Bouillon, chocolate-flavored *Vitarose* (Squibb), eggnog, or fruit juice with hard land rusk, toasted white bread, Zwieback.

Permitted.

BEVERAGES:

Bouillon, cocoa, coffee, cream, fruit juices as listed, milk when tolerated, weak tea, *Vegea*, *Vichy*

BREADSTUFFS:

Bread sticks, dry white toast, holland rusk, melba toast, Zwieback

CEREALS:

Cream of Wheat, farina, hominy, *Pablum*, *Ralston*, strained oatmeal

BY PRODUCTS:

Butter, cream, cheese (cottage, Philadelphia cream or process cheese as *Velveeta*).

SSERTS:

cornstarch pudding, custards, ice-cream without nuts or seeds, gelatin preparations, *Junket*.

S:

ached, soft-boiled, scrambled in double boiler; or used in eggnogs or custards.

ITS:

uréeed or canned peaches or pears, ripe bananas or apples, canned or fresh grapefruit without membrane.

IT JUICES:

rapefruit, sweetened lemon, tomato; orange and pineapple if tolerated.

TS:

ef: boiled, broiled, roasted; boiled tongue; broiled fillet; chopped chuck steak or sirloin; beef heart, calves' heart or liver.

amb: roast, boiled leg of lamb, broiled chops.

ork: lean bacon well done, boiled ham.

icken: roast, boiled, creamed.

ish: boiled or broiled fillet.

PS:

ouillon, lentil or split pea, puréed vegetable in half milk and half cream, strained vegetable made only with those on the permitted list.

RCHES:

acaroni, noodles and other pastes; potato, baked (do not eat skin) or mashed; rice cooked with plenty of water until very soft.

ETABLES:

sparagus, beets, broccoli, carrots, peas, spinach, squash, string beans, swiss chard (all to be puréed).

mit: Artichokes, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, corn, cucumbers, lettuce, lima beans, onions, peppers, radishes, sauerkraut, scallions, tomatoes, turnips, watercress.

idden.

cohol

obacco

axatives or cathartics

Meats, fried

Pastries

Shellfish

Nuts

Highly spiced or seasoned foods

Whole wheat products

Suggestions.—Introduction of other items may be made at the physician's discretion in response to the patient's desires. The success of the treatment often depends upon the expertness shown in the preparation of the diet. Wherever necessary, then, the doctor must be prepared to give detailed instruction in this regard. Wide knowledge of foods and their processing is the best possible equipment for this task.

CONSTIPATION

JEROME MARKS, M. D.

Constipation exists when an individual does not spontaneously evacuate the bowel at least once in twenty-four hours. Such a daily movement is generally accepted as normal, although wide variations may exist, with evacuations occurring only every third or fourth day or at even longer intervals, without any impairment of well-being. However, for the majority of persons a daily movement is apparently necessary for comfort and health and should be the aim of therapy.

The *causes* of constipation are numerous, and frequently may be active simultaneously in the same individual.

These include among others, anomalies of the colon (redundant body habitus (especially the asthenic); psychic and nervous factors; vicious habit formation; endocrine factors (hypothyroidism)⁴; finally, dietary factors. The latter are among the most important and involve: (a.) inadequate bulk in the diet, (b.) inadequate vitamin intake², (c.) mineral deficiency (calcium and potassium salts,¹¹ (d.) irregular food habits, (e.) insufficiently stimulating foods (natural cathartic salts, acids and sugars of fruits), (f.) sufficient water drinking.

All these factors will be discussed in some detail below.

Varieties of Constipation.—I. *Atonic Constipation* occurs when there is a relaxation of the bowel musculature in asthenic or malnourished individuals, or it may develop from long continued use of enemas or cathartics. Alvarez *et al*¹ claim this form to be only a secondary result to distal spastic constipation but studies after opaque enemas (Larimore¹⁰, Kantor⁸) actually show "composition" of the colon.

II. *Spastic Constipation*, the most common type, is often associated with left lower quadrant pain, and a palpable tender descending (iliac) colon. Spasm in this type is also often noted at the anal sphincter.

III. About 20 per cent of cases reveal *rectal constipation* (*dyschezia*) with normal transit through the colon but accumulation and impaction of feces in the rectum. This type results from failure to respond to the call for defecation, from painful ano-rectal disease, (Hurst⁷), and not infrequently in bedridden older patients. Diet has little effect on this type, the principle therapy being correction of predisposing ano-rectal disease, correction of faulty stool habits and the use of suppositories, low enemas or oil instillations.

IV. Finally, there is the constipation associated with *redundant colon* which accounts for about 20 per cent of cases. Because of the length and consequent looping of the colon, stools in this type may occur only at long intervals, and these patients give the characteristic history that enemas usually are of little use and often get "lost" in the abdomen⁸.

Though it is helpful to describe four distinct types, it is freely admitted that "pure" forms seldom are encountered in practice. Several varieties may occur in the same individual. Thus spasm of the distal colon produces an atony of the proximal colon; spasticity likewise is frequently associated with redundancy, and also often results from the same painful ano-rectal lesions that give rise to dyschezia. For rational therapy it is thus of paramount importance not only to diagnose the existence of constipation but to evaluate the various elements (spasticity, atonicity, redundancy) which may exist in each case. The ideal method is detailed x-ray studies but a practical clinical diagnosis can usually be made. This involves careful history taking, a physical examination to reveal the presence

colonic spasm and/or atony, a rectal examination for local disease for determining rectal packing, and finally actual inspection of stool itself. *It must again be stressed that no case of constipation should ever be treated without a complete rectal examination.*

treatment.—“Constipation is one of the most frequent conditions which the physician is called upon to treat, yet there is probably no other common disorder which is so often badly managed. It is unfortunate since the results of adequate treatment are usually satisfactory” (Bockus³).

Treatment consists of two parts: namely hygienic measures and appropriate diet, both of which require individualization. Among the more important *hygienic measures* may be mentioned:

1.) Explanation of colonic physiology to the patient, stressing importance of regularity of habits, so that he will make every effort to move his bowels every day at a set time. This is usually most easily accomplished just after breakfast when the accumulated colonic content responds best to the gastro-colic reflex.

2.) Avoidance of laxatives and enemas, coupled with the assurance that failure to have a daily movement during the period of reaction will have no serious consequences whatsoever, except perhaps discomfort (which at best is most probably psychological reaction).

3.) Relaxation in general, and in particular during the time set aside for the daily visit to stool. This may be accomplished by allowing adequate time, “appropriate literature”, and for those whom it relaxes, a morning smoke.

4.) Reassurance that normal bowel function can almost always be reestablished (unless the patient is too old) with perseverance, cooperation, and willingness of the patient to undergo some slight discomfort during the period of treatment.

Equally important perhaps even more than hygienic measures, is proper *dietary regimen*. This too must be individualized and planned with the same precision as a diet for diabetes or obesity⁹. The principles underlying a diet prescription may be considered under the following heads:

1.) **Adequate Bulk.**—This aspect of the problem has recently been studied by Cowgill^{5,6} who advocated a fiber minimum of 90 to 100 mg. fiber per kilogram of body weight. Kantor and Cooper⁹ have enlarged this study and recommended the addition of 20 small apples, 3 bananas, or 2 apples to the usual servings of vegetables and cereals to supply the Cowgill fiber requirement. The “usual” servings include daily four vegetables one of which may be potato, one whole grained cereal, and at least one slice of whole wheat bread in addition to other bread. Obviously substitution of fruits, vegetables, cereals and bread stuffs are allowed according to the principles of Kantor and Cooper (See page 720).

It is advisable, however, that at the beginning of treatment only soft and articles should be used, because rough food-stuffs may provoke colonic irritation with resulting spasm and, so, increase constipation.

As a practical matter, therefore, the use of bananas (high in content and relatively non-irritating) is recommended. In addition, fruits and vegetables should be well-cooked and pureed first which renders them less irritating without reducing their Bulk (as distinct from roughage which it is wise to avoid) may be obtained through the use of accessory food substances such as hydrophilic colloids, (agar-agar, bassorin, psyllium, Karaya, other mucilagenous vegetable substances) which by absorbing water swell in the bowel and thus give the necessary stimulus to peristalsis without producing the irritative effects of the "roughage" foods on the colon (bran, raw fruits, etc.). In general, therefore, unless spasm can be completely excluded by history and physical examination it will be wisest to begin the dietary management of constipation by use of a "bland" diet with bulk supplements. As the treatment is under way and irritability has subsided, the diet may be gradually expanded cautiously to include salads, raw vegetables, and raw and dried fruits.

The use of the hydrophilic colloids is often of great value in treating the rectal type of constipation (dyschezia) where the bulky stool produced tends to intensify the lost defecation reflex; and similarly they are of value in constipation due to redundant colon where the long capacious bowel is filled by a large, semi-solid mass and a normal stimulus to peristalsis is thus supplied.

(2.) **Adequate Vitamin Intake.**—Experimental work on animals by numerous observers² has indicated that deficiency of Vitamin B and/or pantothenic acid and probably other factors of the B Complex causes loss of intestinal tone and decreased intestinal motility. Studies in humans tend to confirm these findings, but their evaluation is not always easy, since some of the beneficial effects may have resulted from the bulky preparations used as a source of vitamin B. Nonetheless, our diet being at best deficient in these elements their addition seems indicated. Hence Brewer's Yeast, pork (if tolerated), and other meats, as well as unimpaired cereals, deserve to be included in the diet. Supplemental feedings of wheat germ and the various commercial forms of vitamin B may be used. A heaping teaspoonful of Brewer's Yeast may be suspended in a small amount of water, then diluted with tomato, orange, grapefruit or pineapple juice to a volume of 100 to 150 cc., so that an optimum intake of vitamin C is provided as well.

(3.) **Adequate Mineral Intake.**—Importance of mineral metabolism can be appreciated from the work of Robertson and Doyle¹¹. The experimenters showed that rats fed on mineral poor diets soon develop marked intestinal stasis, which was promptly relieved when calcium and potassium carbonate were added to the diet. The stasis did not occur in control animals on normal mineral diets. Minerals in general, and potassium salts, in particular, in the human dietary are to a great extent lost by the boiling of foods. The use of large amounts of sodium chloride serves further to deprive the body of potassium. In our dietetic regimen therefore, table salt should not be used in excess and potassium-containing foods should

consumed wherever possible (See list on page 209). When foods contain too much roughage for an irritable colon, their may be advantageously substituted.

Calcium is of course best obtained from milk and its products. Milk in popular belief is held to be constipating, but this is probably due to the fact that patients taking it in large quantities do so at the expense of other foods more likely to give greater bulk to the stool. Milk is a valuable food and unless there is some good reason (allergy) its omission, it deserves inclusion in the diet.

Chemical Stimulation of Peristalsis.—Fruits, both fresh and dried, contain numerous organic acids, salts, and sugars that are naturally laxative. These include figs, raisins, prunes, dates, pears, apples, oranges, melons, and grapes. Hence, they should have a large part in the diet; or if they are too irritating to the intestine should be given as juices (apple, orange, prune or grape), or stewed. A very palatable dish may be prepared by cooking figs, raisins and apples, adding this mixture to cereal. Prunes are especially valuable and as has been pointed out probably owe their laxative effect to a isatin compound similar to commercial "isacen".

Adequate Fluids.—Many causes of constipation are due to rather factor than the consumption of a highly concentrated dry

A glass or two of water before each meal may be all that is necessary for a cure. In constipation due to colonic spasm, redundancy, or rectal packing, lack of adequate fecal liquefaction is an associated element in aggravating the disease. Marked amelioration occurs when sufficient fluid is taken. This should amount to at least $1\frac{1}{2}$ liters daily in addition to the moisture present in the solid food. From a physiological standpoint, fluid taken on an empty stomach before breakfast rapidly passes through the digestive tract, acting as an intestinal flush and stimulant to colonic peristalsis and so two glasses should be taken at this time. An additional glass should be taken before lunch and before supper. Patients should be warned *not* to add lemon juice to the pre-breakfast water. It has recently been shown¹² that this practice may be very destructive to the enamel of the teeth.

Miscellaneous Dietary Factors.—Honey is generally considered laxative as is also milk-sugar. Both of these may be used to advantage, especially if the patient is underweight. *Fats* promote peristalsis, chemically and mechanically, and therefore the addition of butter, cream, olive oil (pure or as mayonnaise) and bacon is recommended particularly to the asthenic patient unless so-called "biliary" results. A high fat dietary is appended.

Alcohol in limited quantities is not detrimental to evacuation in those who do not have an idiosyncrasy to stimulants, and for those who enjoy it, beer is said to be mildly laxative.

BLAND DIET FOR SPASTIC CONSTIPATION

(First Stage of Treatment)

BEFORE BREAKFAST:

2 glasses of plain tap water.

BREAKFAST:

Fruit:—

Fruit Juice (orange, grapefruit, pineapple, or prune).

Vegetable Juice (tomato, V-8, etc.).

Stewed or canned fruit (pears, prunes, cherries, peaches, apricots, apples, apple sauce). AVOID ALL BERRIES.

Bananas.

Eggs:—

Soft boiled or poached.

Cereal:—

Strained oatmeal, cream of wheat, farina, hominy, cornflakes or puffed rice, (with milk or cream and a little sugar. Milk sugar is preferable). AVOID BRAN.

Bread:—

White Bread (plain or toasted) with butter or honey.

Beverages:—

Sanka coffee (cream and sugar as desired). Milk. Tea. Postum.

10 A. M.:

Toast, Holland Rusk, Zwiebach, Uneeda Biscuit (with butter or honey).

Malted Milk, Milk, or Fruit Juice (same as breakfast—adding heaping teaspoonful of yeast).

DINNER:

Soups:—

Creamed, preferably, or pureed vegetable (peas, potato, etc.).

Meats:—

Chicken; Lamb chop; Roast Lamb; Tender Beef Steak; Roast Beef; Plain Boiled Ham; Broiled Calves Liver.

Fresh Fish (boiled, broiled or baked).

Canned Tuna fish or Salmon.

Vegetables:—

Baked, boiled or mashed potatoes. Rice, macaroni, spaghetti, vermicelli, or noodles (with butter added at the table).

String beans, peas, small lima beans, squash, beets, asparagus tips, carrots, spinach. ALL PUREED.

Desserts:—

Plain desserts—Rice, tapioca, farina, bread or chocolate pudding. Custard, junket or plain jello with cream. Prune whip. Plain pound cake, sponge cake, angel food or Lady Fingers. Ice Cream (if melted in the mouth). Cream cheese or pot cheese. Baked apple (without skin); apple sauce; bananas; stewed fruit (same as breakfast).

Beverages:—

Same as breakfast.

4 P. M.:

Same as 10 A. M. (if desired).

SUPPER:

Same as Breakfast or Dinner.

10 P. M.:

Same as 10 A. M. (if desired).

Avoid

everything fried or rich in fat, including gravies.
 everything highly spiced or seasoned (mustard, pepper, vinegar, chup, horse-radish, relishes, prepared meat sauces). Salt is used, in moderation.
 All canned, smoked, and preserved meats and fish.
 All raw and dried fruits and raw vegetables.
 All pastries, preserves, nuts, and candies.
 All stimulants and carbonated waters.
 All ice cold beverages.
NOTE: At least 6 and preferably 8 glasses of water daily.

DIET FOR CONSTIPATION

Second Stage of Treatment when colonic spasm has subsided)
 Standard BLAND Diet with the following additions:
Fruit: May be eaten raw or dried (figs, dates, prunes).
Cereals: May include whole grain cereals.
Bread: Whole wheat or rye.
Vegetable: Cooked or raw. NOT PUREED.
Dessert: Include fruits as noted above.
Liquids: At least 6 to 8 glasses of water daily.
NOTE: The transition from the BLAND diet to this full diet should be a slow progression. Many persons will not be able to tolerate all the foods listed above without developing distress, and offending articles withdrawn as soon as discovered.

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CORONARY THROMBOSIS

ROBERT McGRATH, M. D.

For the first three days after the onset of the attack, a diet of fluids and soft foods should be ordered. For most cases the usual

type of soft diet is satisfactory for this period but occasional more restricted diet such as the following is best for the first day.

Morning: Strained fruit juice.

Midmorning: Gruel with cream and sugar.

Midafternoon: Eggnog.

Evening: Soft cooked egg; ice cream or gelatin.

Late evening: Milk or buttermilk.

After the third day the soft diet can be replaced by a 1200 calorie low residue diet. For most patients not requiring weight reduction the latter is satisfactory for the remainder of the period of bed rest. Some patients dislike a low residue diet and for them a 1000 calorie diet of the weight reduction type may be used beginning at the tenth day, provided that the uncooked fruit and coarse vegetables included do not disturb the digestion.

When weight reduction is needed, an 800 calorie weight reduction diet should be ordered beginning at the tenth day. This diet may disturb the digestion of certain patients for the reason just mentioned. For such patients the following plan is satisfactory both from the standpoint of the gastrointestinal tract and weight reduction. Use the 1200 calorie low residue diet and the Karrell diet on alternate days.

The preceding discussion has been planned for the case following an average course. The diets referred to will be found in this book under appropriate headings.

In addition to its value in weight control, a low caloric intake has been shown to diminish the work of the heart by reducing the basal metabolic rate. The emphasis placed on a diet that does not disturb the digestion is based upon the fact that coronary vasoconstriction is produced by viscerocardiac reflexes resulting from indigestion. Discussion of this point will be found under Angina Pectoris.

If congestive failure is present, the dietary management should be the same as outlined in this book under Myocardial Failure consisting essentially of a low sodium neutral ash diet.

Maintenance Period.—For the low-calorie diets (600 to 1000 Calories) suitable at this stage of the disease, reference should be made to Obesity (page 467).

CYCLIC VOMITING.

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Discussion.—Cyclic vomiting is characterized by periodic attacks of vomiting which occur at regular intervals without apparent cause but which at times may follow excitement or fatigue. The condition has been reported in infancy, but is more prevalent in children between the ages of two and four and often persists until ten or twelve. Children so afflicted are usually high-strung, nervous and delicate. The attacks last from several hours to several days and are accompanied by periods of lassitude and anorexia.

The author believes that the vomiting is attributable to a general metabolic derangement and not to the acetone body disturbance.

Food	Amt. in (grams)	Household Measure	C	P	F	Na	Base	Acid	Neutral
<i>Breakfast</i>									
Orange juice	100	2 cup	12	-	-	.0002	4.8	-	-
Farina	30	4 c. cooked	16	2	-	.0195	-	-	-
Toast (Low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	-	.0230	-	2.2	-
Butter (salt free)	5	1 tsp.	-	-	4	.0002	-	-	+
Light Cream	30	2 tblsp.	1	1	6	.0390	1.2	-	+
Milk (whole)	50	1 cup	3	1	2	.0255	-	-	-
Beverage	10	2 tsp.	10	-	-	-	-	-	+
Sugar									
<i>Dinner</i>									
White Meat Chicken									
Rice	50	1 slice	-	10	2	.0390	-	5.4	-
Peas	30	4 c. cooked	24	3	-	.0005	-	2.8	-
White Bread (low salt)	100	2 cup	9	2	-	.0009	.9	-	-
Butter (salt free)	30	1 slice	15	3	-	.0230	-	2.2	-
Orange Ice	10	2 tsp.	-	-	8	.0004	-	-	+
Milk (whole)	100	2 cup	35	-	-	.0002	2.8	-	-
Sugar	180	1 glass	10	6	8	.1020	3.7	-	-
	5	1 teaspoon	5						
<i>Supper or Lunch</i>									
Egg omelet	48	1 egg	-	6	6	.0628	-	5.5	-
Asparagus tips	100	5 stalks	3	1	-	.0160	5	-	-
White bread (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	-	.0230	-	2.2	-
Butter (salt free)	10	2 tsp.	-	-	8	.0004	-	-	+
Apple Sauce	100	2 cup	20	1	-	.0001	2.4	-	-
Milk (whole)	180	1 glass	10	6	8	.1020	3.7	-	-
Sugar	5	1 teaspoon	5						
Totals			207	48	52	.4777	20.0	20.3	-

TABLE 28.—1000 CALORIE LOW SODIUM NEUTRAL ASH DIET.

Food	Amt. in Grams	Household Measure	C	P	F	Na	Base	Acid	Neutral
<i>Breakfast</i>									
Orange juice	100	2 cup	12	—	—	.0002	4.8	—	—
Egg	48	1 egg	—	6	6	.0628	—	5.5	—
White toast (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	—	.0230	—	2.2	—
Butter (salt free)	3	2 tsp.	—	—	2	.0001	—	—	+
Beverage—Sk. Milk	30	2 tblsp.	1	1	—	.0127	6	—	—
<i>Dinner</i>									
Roast Beef (lean)	75	1 serving	—	15	10	.0396	—	5.6	—
Summer squash	100	2 cup	3	1	—	.0005	1.1	—	—
String beans	100	2 cup	3	1	—	.0230	5.5	—	—
White bread (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	—	.0230	—	2.2	—
Butter (salt free)	5	1 tsp.	—	—	4	.0002	—	—	+
Apple Sauce (no sugar)	100	2 cup	12	1	—	.0001	2.4	—	—
Skimmed milk	180	1 glass	10	6	—	.1020	3.3	—	—
<i>Supper or Lunch</i>									
Sliced chicken	75	1 serving	—	15	3	.0585	—	8.1	—
Peas	100	2 cup	9	1	—	.0009	9	—	—
Sliced tomato-lettuce	100	1 med. tomato and 1 leaf lettuce	3	1	—	.0042	5.7	—	—
White bread (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	—	.0230	—	2.2	—
Butter (salt free)	5	1 tsp.	—	—	4	.0002	—	—	+
Blueberries (fresh)	100	3 cup	12	1	—	.0005	2.7	—	—
Skimmed milk	180	1 glass	10	6	—	.1020	3.3	—	—
Beverage		1 cup							
Totals			120	64	29	4765	30.3	94.5	

Food	Amt. in Grams	Household Measure	C	P	F	Na	Base	Acid	Neutral
<i>Breakfast</i>									
Orange juice	100	2 cup	12	-	-	.0002	4.8	-	-
Oatmeal	20	4 cup	16	2	-	.0006	-	3.2	-
Egg	48	1 egg	-	6	6	.0628	-	5.5	-
Toast (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	-	.0230	-	2.2	-
Butter (salt free)	5	1 tsp.	-	-	4	.0002	1.2	-	+
Milk (whole)	50	1 cup	3	1	2	.0255	-	-	-
Sugar	15	1 tsp.	15	-	-	-	-	-	+
Light cream	30	2 tblsps.	1	1	6	.0390	-	-	+
<i>Dinner</i>									
Roast Beef	100	1 lg. serving	-	20	15	.0530	-	9.6	-
Baked potato	100	1 med.	18	3	-	.0006	9.0	-	-
Summer squash	100	2 cup	3	1	-	.0005	1.1	-	-
Sliced tomato & lettuce	100	1 tomato & lettuce	3	1	-	.0042	5.7	-	-
Bread (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	-	.0230	-	2.2	-
Butter (salt free)	10	2 tsp.	-	-	8	.0004	-	-	+
Lemon Gelatine	85	2 cup	18	2	-	.0008	.3	-	-
Sugar	5	1 tsp.	5	-	-	-	-	-	+
Milk (whole)	180	1 glass	10	6	8	.1020	3.7	-	-
<i>Supper or Lunch</i>									
Sliced chicken	75	1 serving	-	15	3	.0585	-	8.2	-
Steamed rice	30	4 cup cooked	24	3	-	.0005	-	2.8	-
Asparagus	100	5 stalks	3	1	-	.0160	5	-	-
White bread (low salt)	30	1 slice	15	3	-	.0230	-	2.2	-
Butter (salt free)	10	2 tsp.	-	-	8	.0004	-	-	+
Canned peadhes	100	2 halves	18	1	-	.0001	4.7	-	-
Sugar	5	1 tsp.	5	-	-	-	-	-	+
Milk (whole)	180	1 glass	10	6	8	.1020	3.7	-	-
Totals			209	78	68	.5363	34.7	35.9	-

which is present, as children with more severe acidosis than accompanying cyclic vomiting may not vomit. This metabolic derangement may probably be of nervous origin. Acetone bodies are frequently found in large amounts in the urine and at times demonstrable within a short period after the onset. Their accumulation, however, does not explain the vomiting.

Small quantities of food readily evoke vomiting, and even in absence of food, vomitus is produced consisting of gastric juice, mucus and occasionally blood and bile. The breath is usually fetid and masks the odor of acetone which would otherwise be found.

Treatment is principally dietetic and requires little medication. Early in the disease, an initial short period of starvation is indicated, followed by carbohydrate administration, which may be augmented by orange juice and alkaline waters. Fluids should be given freely but if vomited, may be injected parenterally. After recovery, those foods high in carbohydrate and low in fat should constitute the major portion of the diet. When milk is resumed, it should first be skimmed and diluted.

Lolly-pops or other hard candy at midmorning and midafternoon provide a satisfactory source of readily available carbohydrate.

CYSTITIS.

(Refer to page 570.)

DERMATOLOGIC LESIONS.

SAMUEL AYRES, JR., M.D.

Introduction.—Curiously enough that field of medicine in which the sites of the disease are most accessible, namely, dermatology, offers some of the most baffling etiologic problems. Rational dietetic treatment is consequently difficult to institute. One reason for this paradox is the fact that in many instances the skin manifestations do not constitute the disease but represent some functional or organic disorders. Like brightly colored beads held before the eyes of a savage, the gaudy skin eruption is too often likely to distract one from the realities of the situation. Too much attention is often focussed on the cutaneous picture and too little on the underlying pathologic changes which have produced the condition.

It is difficult dogmatically to exclude any skin disease from the possibility of being influenced by diet except, perhaps, the congenital anomalies, such as hemangiomas, pigmented naevi, fibromas, and such acute infections as impetigo, scabies, erysipelas, etc. One might even argue that with an entirely proper diet the resistance would be maintained in such an excellent state that acute infection would be unlikely to occur. With the present state of our knowledge such a statement can be neither proved nor disproved.

Diet may also play a rôle in dermatology through indirect means. For example, an improperly balanced diet may induce a susceptibility to infections of the teeth, tonsils, sinuses or other areas leading to the establishment of a focus of infection which may the

the skin eruptions through toxic effects. The influence of diet on the development of cancer is also a matter of much debate, and which is undergoing extensive investigation. A normal, balanced diet as described elsewhere in this book is a safe guide for most of the skin conditions. Alcohol is deleterious in the majority of eruptions because of the fact that many of them are inflammatory in nature, that is, are characterized by dilation of the cutaneous bloodvessels. Since one of the prominent effects of alcohol is a flushing and warmth of the skin, the condition is usually aggravated. Tobacco may influence nutrition in a variety of ways through its effect on digestive functions, its tendency to slow down capillary circulation and by means of allergic or direct toxic effects. Skin disorders associated with a reduction in blood supply are probably very definitely harmed by smoking. Schmidt has indicated that smoking is detrimental in cases of lupus erythematosus.

For practical purposes, dietary instructions are specifically valuable in only few skin diseases, of which the following are probably the most important.

Acne Rosacea.—**Discussion.**—At least two distinct causes may produce this disorder. It has recently been recognized that some cases are due entirely to the infestation with a minute animal parasite, *Demodex folliculorum*. This organism has been known for a long time as a frequent inhabitant of the sebaceous gland duct, especially about the nose and face of adults, apparently harmless in its role as a scavenger. In some cases of acne rosacea, however, these mites can be found in large numbers in the superficial follicular openings or vesico-pustules which occasionally may be seen. The author has personally counted as many as sixteen organisms in a single, tiny scale or droplet of pus. This parasite is usually not found in acne vulgaris. Cases of rosacea in which *Demodex folliculorum* is found usually clear up promptly under the local application of a strong antiparasitic ointment, such as one might use for scabies.

Other cases of rosacea, clinically indistinguishable from the atrophic type, are commonly caused by gastro-intestinal disturbances, most frequently by a hypochlorhydria or an actual achylia gastrica. When such an etiology can be demonstrated, the response to a hypochlorhydria diet and dilute hydrochloric acid by mouth is most gratifying. The details of such a diet may be found by reference to Gastric Hypoacidity.

Diets of infection, utero-ovarian disturbances and emotional disturbances have also been credited with producing the clinical picture of acne rosacea. Deficiency of vitamin B complex has been considered by some authorities as a contributing factor in certain cases. **Suggestions.**—When meats are prescribed they should not be too rich. Those of choice are beef, lamb or liver. They should be tender and taken in modest amounts. Any food which causes discomfort because of idiosyncrasy on the part of the patient should

be avoided. There is an intimate reflex connection between stomach and the vascular supply of the face. The mere taking of food into the stomach tends, in many cases, to cause flushing of the central portion of the face. In the presence of rosacea, the tendency to flushing is greatly exaggerated. Alcohol even in moderate quantities is the greatest offender. Iced or excessively hot drinks such as hot soup and highly seasoned foods also produce facial congestion. Food should be eaten slowly, drinks should be sipped and in the presence of a low gastric acidity, dilute hydrochloric acid or water should be sipped along with each meal. The amount of roughage in the diet will depend upon the condition of the stomach and intestines of the individual case.

Acne Vulgaris.—**Discussion.**—The cause of acne vulgaris is twofold. The underlying basis for its development is an oily skin. Since the endocrine changes which are characteristic of adolescence stimulate the oil glands, most cases of this disorder are seen between the ages of twelve and twenty years, although a few cases have been reported in infants and the disease occasionally persists into the adult period of life. Certain bacteria, especially the staphylococcus and the acne bacillus, find the oily skin with its comedones an excellent culture medium and are responsible for the papules, pustules and subsequent scarring. Since, at the present time, there are no known measures for controlling the excessive oil secretion through internal channels, the most effective method of treating the disease is by external means. For mild cases, antiseptic and astringent lotions suffice, but for severe cases, properly administered fractional doses of Roentgen-ray have the power of restoring the oil glands to a normal state of function, thereby depriving the bacteria of their source of food supply. Excellent results can be obtained by this means alone. Maynard had treated 132 cases of acne vulgaris with vitamin D in the form of *Vioosterol* (20 to 40 drops daily) and after three months noted that 28.5 per cent were markedly improved and 47.1 per cent were healed. This work has not been altogether confirmed as yet. Sutton believes that acne should be treated by a diet low in fat, low in vitamin A, milk-free and augmented by thyroid and iodized salt. This work has not been confirmed by other dermatologists. In contrast with this theory, a number of recent observations indicate marked benefit from large doses of vitamin A such as 150,000 units daily. It is felt that the lamellar hyperkeratosis about the mouths of the follicles is due to a temporary or relative deficiency of vitamin A possibly brought on by hormonal activity.

Focal infections in the sinuses, tonsils, teeth, etc., pulmonary tuberculosis, improper or defective alimentation and any systemic condition which lowers the general resistance are important contributory factors in certain cases. Where anemia is present, the diet should be planned accordingly (see Secondary Anemia and Chlorosis), and where a lack of gastric acidity has been found, it occasionally happens, the diet should be concerned primarily with this factor. (See Gastric Hypoacidity.) Acne tends to become

rely exacerbated in the presence of heat and humidity as was clearly demonstrated during the recent war. Perhaps an abnormal sensitization of the tissues to the infecting organisms may account in part for the sudden transformation of a relatively mild case of acne to one with deep inflammatory cyst-like abscesses with severe scarring, the so-called acne conglobata, which during the war was termed "tropical acne". The two conditions are in all probability identical.

In general a few dietetic rules may be helpful.

Do not eat:

Alcoholic drinks, chocolate, nuts, soda fountain drinks except unsweetened fruit juices

Pastries, pie, cake, ice-cream, fried foods, cream in any form, jams, jellies, marmalades, etc., iodized salt (see p. 288)

Do not eat:

Fats, sugar, meats, potatoes, bread, rice, macaroni, noodles, spaghetti

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
Whole grain cereal, cooked or prepared, with milk
Whole grain toast or roll thinly buttered
Milk

Luncheon:

Egg, except fried or cottage cheese
Cooked vegetables
Salad with lemon juice
Whole grain crackers
Fresh or stewed fruit
Milk

Dinner:

Fruit juice or vegetable juice
Lean meat or fish
Cooked vegetable, other than potatoes
Salad with lemon juice
Whole grain bread thinly buttered
Fresh or stewed fruit
Milk

Suggestions.—The diet should consist principally of vegetables, fruits, milk, eggs in moderation, meat not more than once a day except in those engaged in active physical exercise. Restriction of carbohydrate has been more or less a traditional procedure in acne vulgaris. Recent investigations by Crawford and Schwartz at Harvard, however, tend to discredit the idea that starches and sugars are harmful. Occasionally hot bread may be permitted, if thin and crusty. Cereals may be eaten two or three times a week. Fats in the form of butter and cream may be used in moderation, but ice-cream, whipped cream, gravy and fried foods are likely to be troublesome. An abundance of water should be consumed. Since iodides and

bromides are partly excreted by way of the sebaceous glands, food or drugs containing these substances should be used. This includes iodized salt, Bromo-quinine, Bromo-seltzer, bromides, etc. Needless to say, the bowels should be regulated so as to produce one or two adequate movements a day.

In the event additional natural roughage is indicated, the following foods are particularly recommended and can be infiltrated into the preceding diets: Baked beans, corn, dates, figs, grapes, pears, plums, prunes, raspberries, wheat, bran and barley. Additional items of foods with high roughage may be found elsewhere. The administration of agar-agar may, if necessary, be judiciously prescribed without interference with the dietary regimen.

Acrodynia.—**Discussion.**—This is an uncommon disorder occurring in infants characterized by a pink or red color of the hands and feet which are at the same time rather cold and accompanied by a more or less generalized papular eruption with hyperhidrosis, photophobia and paræsthesias. Thiamine chloride by intramuscular injection has given good results according to a number of observers.

"Canker Sores" (Aphthous Stomatitis, Herpes Buccalis).—**Discussion.**—Much confusion exists with regard to the etiology of this condition. In fact the classification itself is unsettled, most authorities regarding the above titles as synonymous, while a few would distinguish between aphthous stomatitis and herpes of the buccal mucosa. With its rapid evolution, frequent recurrence, its superficial pin-head to pea-sized ulceration occurring singly or in a small group, (with a bright red areola and frequent submental lymphadenitis), the clinical appearance of the typical canker sore is familiar.

The consensus of opinion at the present time places canker sores in the same category as herpes simplex with a virus etiology. Apparently the virus becomes fixed in the tissues and may remain quiescent for long periods with recurrent attacks. Such attacks may occur spontaneously, or as the result of various disturbances of digestion or other unknown factors.

Certain food idiosyncrasies, especially a sensitivity to walnut may act as a trigger mechanism in a susceptible person.

In addition to avoiding foods known to precipitate attacks, marked benefit may result from a series of intradermal injections of smallpox vaccine given in a dose of one to two capillary ampules at intervals of three or four days for 10 to 12 injections.

Attention has been called to some cases which were apparently benefited by feeding substances rich in water-soluble vitamin B, such as yeast, wheat germ, etc. Refer to Foods Highest in Vitamins.

Carbuncles, Furuncles, and Pyogenic Infections.—**Discussion.**—Chronic or recurring pus infections of the skin usually indicate a lowered resistance which may depend upon various factors such as diabetes, anemia, foci of infections, vitamin deficiencies, overwork, fatigue, etc. In addition to correcting such defects as enumerated above with dietary management appropriate to

circumstances, the author has obtained excellent results from use of autogenous vaccines prepared without phenol, and administered intravenously at weekly intervals for 10 to 15 doses. The beginning dose should not exceed 25 million bacteria if staphylococci are obtained or $\frac{1}{4}$ million if streptococci are grown. The dose can be increased each time short of producing unduly pronounced reactions of chills or fever and preferably below the point of such reactions.

Carotinemia.—**Discussion.**—This rather uncommon disorder is characterized by a lemon or ochre-yellow discoloration of the skin. It is most marked on the face, palms and soles but at times involving the entire cutaneous surface. The scleræ are never affected, which is important in differentiating this condition from jaundice. The discoloration is caused by carotin, a yellow coloring matter found especially in fruits and vegetables such as carrots, squash, oranges, pumpkins, turnips, parsnips, spinach, green and yellow beans, sweet potatoes, and also in egg-yolk, chicken fat and milk. Carotin is a tetraterpene hydrocarbon (C, 40; H, 56), and is intimately associated with vitamin A, being regarded as a precursor of vitamin A.

The clinical picture of carotinemia is produced only when carotin-containing foods form a predominating part of the diet. Many cases have been reported among diabetics, or raw food faddists, owing to an increased consumption of vegetables. The yellow discoloration occurs chiefly on exposed areas and it is felt that bright light increases the intensity of the pigment.

The treatment is entirely dietetic and consists in a restriction of foods rich in carotin. The pigment disappears usually within four to eight weeks, but may persist for many months as in a recent case under the writer's observation. (Refer also to page 56.)

dit.

Carrots, oranges, parsnips, pumpkins, spinach, squash, turnips

dit.

All fresh vegetables, butter, eggs and chicken

Suggestions.—As soon as the pigment has disappeared, the diet should be amplified by an increase of fruits and vegetables but carrots, squash and oranges should be omitted. Meat, fish, bread, cereals and such fruits as apples, pears and grapes should constitute the bulk of the diet during active treatment.

Eczema, Neurodermatitis.—**Discussion.**—In view of the fact that eczema is merely the name given to a symptom or mode of reaction of the skin to a variety of causes both internal and external, it is obvious that no hard and fast rules can be laid down regarding treatment which would be suitable for all persons suffering from this disorder. Yet in many cases diet is of the utmost importance.

During the past few years there has been a tendency to divide eczema into two groups: one retaining the name eczema or contact dermatitis, and applied to those cases due to external irritants and exhibiting a more vesicular eruption; the other to be designated

neurodermatitis, and including those cases due to atopic allergy (Sulzberger). Actually the problem is not as simple as this third category would have to be designated to include all various eczematous eruptions which are caused neither by an allergy nor by contact allergy, but are due to any one of many miscellaneous causes. While it is true that clinical differentiation can often be made between these types, the state of our knowledge is so incomplete and opinions of competent investigators are conflicting that it seems inadvisable at the present to be too categorical in the matter. The term neurodermatitis has been applied to those cases of eczema with chronic, thickened, itchy eruptions frequently involving the face, bends of the elbows and knees, usually hypersensitive to some protein allergen, either food, pollen or epidermal. There are also cases of localized neurodermatitis in which one single area may be involved over a period of many years without any other disturbance in the health. The exact relationship of this disorder to the so-called disseminated neurodermatitis and to eczema has not been definitely established.

The etiology of eczema is extremely complicated. Among the more prominent causes may be mentioned hypersensitiveness to allergy to foods, pollens, bacteria, fungi, plants, chemicals, etc. Occasionally, carbohydrate intolerance is found, due to defective sugar metabolism as exhibited by a disturbed sugar tolerance test. Urbach has demonstrated that some cases show a normal blood sugar tolerance curve but a disturbed skin sugar tolerance curve with retention of sugar in the skin. Also, excessively low blood sugar values may be found together with low blood-pressure and in these cases a deficiency of adrenal cortex hormone has been suggested. Again defective pancreatic digestion leading to intestinal fermentation, together with various little understood alterations of the body chemistry, are at fault. Endocrine imbalance, particularly of the thyroid gland, has not infrequently been proved to be the sole etiologic factor. Bacterial hypersensitiveness deserves special mention since it includes those eczemas due to chronic foci of infections in the sinuses, tonsils, teeth, genito-urinary, biliary, gastro-intestinal tract, etc. Some cases of eczema are apparently caused, directly or indirectly, by a gastric hypochlorhydria or achylia. Anemia, hepatic insufficiency and emotional tension should receive consideration. Some cases known as infectious eczematoid dermatitis are due to external bacterial infections.

It must not be forgotten that a great many cases of eczema are due to external irritants such as plants, cosmetics, chemicals, etc. encountered in occupations and at home. Medications used for the treatment of a minor irritation may cause a severe exacerbation followed by a secondary toxic absorption with an eruption occurring in widely scattered areas, the so-called "id" reaction. A careful history assisted by patch tests of suspected substances will often reveal the offending irritant. Excessive bathing especially during the winter months and in elderly people with sensitive skins may lead to a generalized pruritus or eczematous eruption, known

itus Hiemalis. It not infrequently happens that a person who has come in contact with a certain substance for a number of years without suffering any inconvenience, will suddenly develop an intolerance to this substance resulting in an attack of eczema. No adequate explanation has ever been given for this sudden change in the body chemistry has taken place, and such a change might result from dietary factors. Thus recent experimental observations on several different men indicate that the degree of reaction of the skin to a given irritant can be greatly modified by the diet, a cereal rendering the skin more irritable and a vegetable one conferring a certain degree of immunity against irritants. Vitamin C has been found to render the skin less sensitive to certain irritants. This has been demonstrated both experimentally and clinically in cases of intolerance to arsphenamine. Comel has noted beneficial results in eczema from the use of vitamin D and believes that its effect is in "fixing" calcium in the skin. Vitamin B complex by mouth and crude liver extract intragluteally in a dose of 2 or 3 cc. a week have given good results in some cases of eczema of pure origin.

With such diverse causes no rational diet can be prescribed for a patient with eczema until a careful history, general and special examinations and laboratory studies have revealed the source of the trouble. Excluding, for the moment, those cases due to hypersensitivity to specific foods, one may prescribe a "composite" eczema diet as a temporary measure for those in whom no specific cause can be determined. Such a diet should include an abundance of vitamins, plenty of fruits, vegetables, milk, water, and a moderate amount of easily digested meat. Alcohol should be avoided as well as excesses of sugar, starches and fats.

t.
Alcoholic drinks, soda fountain drinks, fried foods, ice-cream, cream in any form, sugar, salt and cereals

it.
Pastry, jams, jellies, meats, potatoes, bread, pepper, condiments, macaroni, noodles, spaghetti, rice

NOTE.—Butter should be used very sparingly. Wherever possible, sugar should be omitted or added to the meal in minute quantities. Sugar should be omitted in cooking and replaced by a sugar substitute when sweetening is desired.

Suggestions.—In choosing fruits, avoid an excess of those of the citrus family. The citrate salts *in vitro* interfere with the proper functioning of the blood calcium. While it is believed that practically all of the citric acid and citrate salts are changed in the stomach, it is not absolutely certain that some may not enter the circulation as such. In view of the fact that a proper amount of available calcium is of utmost importance in the treatment of certain types of eczema, it would seem wise to allow for this theoretical consideration. Cases in which a stool examination reveals starch

fermentation are benefited not only by restriction of starch intake but are materially helped by oral administration of some refined pancreatic extract in enteric-coated tablets.

The Gerson-Sauerbruch-Herrmansdorfer diet as described under Lupus Vulgaris has also been used with benefit in some cases of eczema or "neurodermatitis", probably through its dehydrating action. "Equilibrated" salt such as "Titro salt," later called "T salt" apparently gives results comparable to those obtained from the total exclusion of sodium chloride.

Test or "elimination" diets, which are so often employed in detecting foods to which a person may be sensitive in certain cases of allergic eczema, are described in detail elsewhere. (Refer to Test Diets in Food Allergy.)

Dietary prescriptions in cases of eczema due to allergy, as determined by test diets or by skin tests, will obviously exclude all foods to which a person has been found definitely sensitive.

An attack of eczema is not infrequently brought on by an acute psychic upset or by a chronic psychic turmoil such as business anxiety or domestic conflicts. The dietary treatment in such cases will be favored by correction of these influences or by a change of surrounding conditions.

Erythema Multiforme (Toxic Rash).—Discussion.—The various types of toxic erythema are probably related both to urticaria and to eczema, and the same remarks concerning etiology are applicable. Drug sensitivity probably manifests itself more frequently in erythema multiforme than in eczema. The occasional toxic reactions seen either early in pregnancy or just before or after childbirth are often of the erythema multiforme type. Foci of infection are another recognized cause of erythema multiforme and recurrent herpes simplex has also been observed to act as a trigger mechanism in the production of erythema multiforme.

The dietary suggestions under urticaria apply equally well in erythema multiforme.

Exfoliative Dermatitis.—Discussion.—Several causes may be responsible for a more or less generalized exfoliative eruption. The classical picture is seen in acute arsenical dermatitis due to sensitivity to one of the arsphenamines. Arsenic from other sources, such as arsenic spray residues on fruit or vegetables, etc., may produce the same picture. Sensitivity to the sulfonamides, gold, penicillin and other drugs may result in exfoliative dermatitis. Atopic eczema or neurodermatitis may become generalized. Psoriasis either spontaneously or as the result of unduly irritating local medication may develop into a generalized exfoliative dermatitis. Chronic lymphatic leukemia and Hodgkins's disease may be accompanied by the picture of exfoliative dermatitis. Other cases defy etiologic classification.

Dietary measures therefore will necessarily depend somewhat on the underlying factors. Most patients suffering from generalized exfoliative dermatitis display a voracious appetite. This is probably due to an excessive protein and mineral loss in the profusely desquamating scales. It would seem logical therefore to supply at

abundance of proteins, minerals and sulfur. In cases due to arsenic, intravenous administration of sulfur in the form of sodium thiosulfate in doses of 1 gram of 10 per cent solution at intervals of two or three days, definitely hastens the elimination of arsenic as determined by a series of Gutzeit tests on the urine. The administration of sodium thiosulfate should be continued for four to six weeks or longer if necessary. More recently BAL ("British Anti-Lewisite") administered intramuscularly has proved of value in the treatment of exfoliative dermatitis and other tissue injuries caused by arsenic, mercury, etc. Vitamin C and liver extract have also been found to be of value in arsenical cases.

Tomlinson, in a very recent paper, has shown that some cases of exfoliative dermatitis may show a markedly elevated basal metabolic rate and yet at the same time present a high blood cholesterol. In these cases the high BMR represents a false value due to increased thyroid metabolism and such cases may be greatly benefited by administration of thyroid. Everett Lain reports good results from the use of pyridoxine intravenously in a dose of 900 milligrams in certain cases of exfoliated dermatitis, especially following sulfonamides.

Suggestions.—In case of proven or suspected arsenical origin, deciduous fruits, as well as tomatoes, should be peeled in order to avoid traces of arsenical spray residues which might cause an exacerbation of the eruption. Vegetables should be thoroughly washed and the outer leaves should be discarded. The diet should contain an abundance of proteins and Peters observed benefit from administration of cysteine hydrochloride 0.25 gm. intramuscularly and 1 gm. orally each day for several weeks.

Follicular Hyperkeratosis.—**Discussion.**—During recent years it has been noted by a number of investigators that a variety of clinical manifestations characterized by follicular hyperkeratosis have been benefited or cured by the administration of large doses (10,000 units or more daily) of vitamin A over a period of several months. In many of these cases there were no other obvious indications of vitamin A deficiency. The dermatologic lesions range from gooseflesh-like, horny papules, arising at the site of sebaceous orifices with a small projecting plug, to more inflammatory types of lesions consisting of small papules resembling acne, but without pus formation and not confined to strictly acne areas. The former gooseflesh-like corneous lesions usually involve the antero-lateral surfaces of the thighs, arms and buttocks. Other follicular eruptions which have been benefited by vitamin A include the cases of ichthyosis, Darier's disease, ichthyosiform erythroderma, lichen spinulosus, keratosis pilaris, pityriasis rubra pilaris, folliculitis decalvans, and brittleness and friability of the fingers. It should not be concluded, however, that all dermatoses manifesting hyperkeratosis are due to vitamin A deficiency. Investigation of this field has not been under way long enough to justify extravagant claims. In some of these cases such as Darier's disease there may be a congenital disturbance in the ability to

convert carotene into vitamin A. Other cases such as the classical types of ichthyosis may be due to an anatomical defect of the skin. Porokeratosis of Mibelli has shown good response to vitamin A.

Insect Bites.—Discussion.—Several reports during the past few years have shown that attacks by insects such as mosquitoes and fleas can be discouraged by the administration of large doses, 50 to 100 mg. 3 times daily by mouth of thiamine chloride. The vitamin apparently confers immunity by rendering the subjects unpalatable to the insect. After several weeks the dosage can be reduced.

Glossitis.—Discussion.—A red or inflamed tongue frequently indicates a vitamin B deficiency involving one or more factors. A purplish red or magenta color with some swelling and a smooth surface showing flattened or mushroom shaped papillæ suggests a riboflavin deficiency. Niacin deficiency (Pellagra) usually causes a bright red tongue which is smooth, sometimes swollen and atrophic. The tongue may present a similar appearance in pernicious anemia.

"Geographical tongue", the cause of which is unknown presents well defined smooth red areas with whitish scalloped or circinate borders. These areas slowly migrate over the tongue, leaving a normal appearance in its wake.

A non-descript irritation with a burning sensation may be due to irritation by metallic ions liberated as the result of an electro-galvanic current between dental fillings of dissimilar metals which create a difference of potential.

Irritation of the tongue and mucous membranes may result from sensitivity to dentifrices, mouth washes, cough tablets, dentures, etc.

Certain drugs such as phenolphthalein may cause recurrent "fixed" eruptions of the tongue. Refer also to "canker sores" or herpes buccalis and "thrush" under the heading of Moniliasis. Leukoplakia and lichen planus of the tongue must be considered in differential diagnosis of tongue lesions. Pemphigus may be confined to the tongue or mouth for weeks or months.

Leukoplakia.—Discussion.—Leukoplakia, the formation of whitish thickened areas involving the tongue and buccal mucosa, may be due to more than one cause. Many authorities believe that syphilis predisposes to leukoplakia, although the majority of cases are probably unrelated to syphilis. Smoking, oral sepsis, and possibly endocrine and other unknown factors account for certain cases. It has recently been shown, however, that one type of leukoplakia consisting of a diffuse atrophic appearance of the tongue associated with leukoplakic patches, responds very rapidly to the administration of vitamin B in the form of yeast.

Lichen Urticatus, Acne Urticatus, Prurigo.—**Discussion.**—The question could be debated whether these are three separate and distinct entities or whether they are variants of a single type of disorder. The lesions in these conditions consist of intensely itchy papules with a strong tendency to excoriation, and in fact the excoriation may be such a prominent feature that the condition

be regarded as simply "neurotic excoriations." The lesions usually involve the extensor aspects of the arms, legs and necks but may be generalized. When the eruption involves unusual acne areas but without comedones or pustules it is spoken of as acne urticatus. Sometimes the papules are surmounted by tiny vesicles and some cases may resemble dermatitis herpetiformis. Flea bites may be mistaken for lichen urticatus. The condition probably has a multiple etiology, some cases being a manifestation of atopic allergy. Other cases may be due to foci of infections, intestinal parasites, gastro-intestinal disturbances, with hypoacidity, abnormal intestinal flora, liver pathology, etc.

The treatment, dietetic and otherwise, requires careful study of the individual case. Calcium intravenously, Hapamine subcutaneously and benadryl or pyribenzamine are often helpful.

Light Sensitivity, Photo-Sensitive Dermatoses.—Discussion.—Sensitivity to sunlight may be a factor in a number of dermatoses. Eruptions in cases of lupus erythematosus, erythema multiforme, all pox and certain other conditions are definitely aggravated by sunlight or ultra-violet light. Hydroa aestivale and xeroderma pigmentosum are highly light sensitive. Other patients, on the contrary, may exhibit merely nondescript erythematous, papular or eczematous reactions as the result of very slight exposures to the sun.

The mechanism responsible for photo-sensitivity is poorly understood. Porphyrins have been found in the urine and stools in some of these cases and some observers blame the abnormal porphyrins for the sensitivity while others claim that they are a result of the sensitivity. Certain drugs such as the sulfonamides can induce a state of photosensitivity and also foci of infections may play a part. Possibly liver pathology is important.

Urbach has described a syndrome represented by about a dozen cases coming under his observation, consisting of light dermatosis, disturbed liver function, abnormal intestinal bacteria and fecal porphyria. Excellent results followed a diet free of animal protein and no animal or vegetable fat but an abundance of carbohydrates. In addition, cultures of *B. acidophilus* were taken by mouth accompanied by 1 tablespoon of lactose at each dose. Small doses of insulin (10 units 3 times a day) after adequate amounts of carbohydrates together with intramuscular injections of crude liver extract 3 cc. every second day completed the treatment.

Lupus Vulgaris.—Discussion.—Lupus vulgaris and other forms of skin tuberculosis, as well as tuberculosis of bones and joints and occasionally pulmonary tuberculosis, have been successfully treated by dietetic measures as recommended by Gerson, Sauerbruch and Herrmansdorfer. The essential features of the diet consist in an omission of sodium chloride, a restriction of carbohydrate and protein and a liberal allowance of vegetables, fruits, fats, and minerals other than salt. The diet as advocated by Herrmansdorfer is acid-forming as he believes an increase of acidity favors the tissue

defenses against infection, while Gerson's modification of the diet places a greater restriction on proteins and causes an alkaline reaction. Inasmuch as excellent results, amounting to cures in the most obstinate cases of lupus vulgaris, have been obtained with this diet, the acid-base features are apparently of less importance than the high-vitamin content and the restriction of sodium chloride.

The brilliant clinical results have outstripped the scientific explanation of the diet, but the authors feel that the usual constitution of sodium chloride is far in excess of actual needs and that this excess disturbs the mineral metabolism. They believe that this imbalance may be corrected by excluding sodium chloride and freely administering the other minerals in the form of vegetables and fruits. Any salt substitute not containing the sodium radical can be used to replace sodium chloride. More recent modifications of the Gerson-Sauerbruch-Herrmansdorfer diet permit the use of Titro salt, later called Toti salt, an equilibrated salt containing mixtures of calcium, magnesium and potassium, with lesser amounts of sodium.

The percentages according to Nordmark Chemical Works, Inc., New York, N. Y. are as follows:

Sodium	32.51%	Chloride	52.63%
Calcium	1.42%	Lactate	3.79%
Magnesium	0.86%	Citrate	0.5%
Potassium	2.7%		

All foods which are pre-salted should be excluded from the diet.

Cod-liver oil is usually prescribed and some clinicians advocate generalized irradiation with ultra-violet light, although Gerson very emphatically states that, in his experience, patients improve much more rapidly with the diet and cod-liver oil but without the light treatments. Since two distinct diets have been developed for the treatment of lupus, one the "Gerson-Sauerbruch-Herrmansdorfer diet" and the other the "Gerson diet," and since good clinical results have been claimed for each, both diets will be given in detail.

Recently excellent therapeutic results have been reported in the treatment of lupus vulgaris by the oral administration of vitamin D₂ by Charpy in France in 1943 and Dowling and Thomson in England in 1945. Various methods have been employed, with doses ranging from 50,000 units daily to 600,000 units 3 times a week, with and without calcium by mouth. Vitamin D₂ tends to withdraw calcium from storage and has been known to cause severe kidney damage as the result of calcification of the renal tubules. Therefore signs of intolerance such as nausea, etc. should be watched for and blood calcium and non-protein nitrogen levels observed periodically, together with x-rays of the kidneys.

I have personally had the privilege of seeing a patient with lupus vulgaris of the face of many years duration in whom Promizone, which I administered caused a severe local flareup, which subsequently in other hands, cleared up practically one hundred per cent as the result of oral administration of vitamin D₂ in a dose of 50,000 units once daily by mouth without calcium. This dose

well tolerated and was given over a 10 months period, at first month, then a rest of one month then on alternate 2 weeks.

Stis, Taylor and Grekan reported favorable results in sarcoi- with variable doses ranging from 600,000 to 900,000 units with and without calcium.

The possibility of toxicity must constantly be kept in mind in administering vitamin D2.

"Gerson-Sauerbruch-Herrmansdorfer Diet."

Sodium chloride (salt), canned foods of all kinds, smoked, salted and spicy meats, smoked and salted fish, vinegar, bouillon cubes

Fresh meat (500 grams per week), internal organs (calf's thymus, brains, liver, lungs, kidney and spleen), fresh fish, pepper, meat extracts, beer, Malaga and red wine (as ingredients in food), coffee, tea, cocoa (only to flavor milk)

used.

Milk, approximately 1000 to 1500 cc. per day, in any form especially raw milk, furthermore, thick milk, milk with cocoa, milk in puddings or rice, cream, kefir, cheese poor in salt and curds)

Butter (unsalted dairy butter)

Fruit of all kinds (as much as possible raw, but also stewed fruit, preserves, marmalade, fruit wine, fruit salad, baked apples)

Radishes and vegetables (not parboiled but stewed), only fresh vegetables (vegetable juice as a seasoning for soups and other dishes), tomatoes, carrots, especially grated raw with sugar, turnips, potatoes, cabbage, leek, beets, asparagus, cauliflower, red and white cabbage, sauerkraut, cress, endive, lettuce, rhubarb, sorrel, spinach, peas, string beans, lentils, mushrooms, cucumbers, and melons

Flour of all kinds (unsalted bread, whole-wheat bread, pumpernickel, zwieback, noodles, macaroni, cookies, etc.), eggs (in mayonnaise, puddings, custards and cakes)

Rice (not unhusked Rangoon rice), Cream of Wheat, cornmeal, tapioca, barley and oatmeal

Sugar, especially brown sugar candy, genuine bees' honey; olive oil and lard

The following spices should be freely used in order to replace the lack of salt in the food; bone dust, herbs of all kinds, marjoram, tarragon, dill, borage, onions, peppermint, laurel leaves, chive, thyme, lemon, parsley, celery, garlic, horseradish, black radish, radishes, ginger, vanilla, cinnamon, aniseed, dried currants, almonds, coconut, nuts, raisins, nutrient yeast, etc.

Meals.

7 A.M., a thick soup (oatmeal, rice, cornmeal or tapioca) in approximately 300 cc. of milk with some water, $\frac{1}{2}$ tablespoonful of butter, sugar, lemon or cinnamon or vanilla, $1\frac{1}{2}$ tablespoonfuls of cod-liver oil with phosphorus

9 A.M., weak coffee (chiefly malt with a few grains of coffee), much milk, bread with either butter or preserves or honey

10 A.M., fruit or stewed fruit

Dinner at 12.30 P.M., soup, one course and dessert (fruit)

4 P.M., milk (cocoa or coffee), cake, cookies, zwieback, bread with either butter or preserves or honey

Supper at 6.30 P.M., 1 course and fruit

8 P.M., thick soup as in morning, 1 tablespoonful of cod-liver

Suggestions.—As may be seen from the preceding, the diet consists of mixed foods administered in numerous meals. Raw vegetable foodstuffs rich in vitamins are prevalent. The calories are high (40 to 45 Calories for every kg. [2.2 pounds] of body weight) but less high than usually given in the majority of sanatoria. The diet contains approximately 90 grams of protein, 160 grams of fat and 220 grams of carbohydrate, a ration of 1.5 protein, 2.7 fat and 3.7 carbohydrate per kg. Fats are relatively high, carbohydrate relatively low. Overfeeding with animal proteins, against which many specialists warn, is avoided by the restricted consumption of meat. The intake of proteins is nevertheless considerable. The raw and stewed vegetables provide for the mineral salts in the food.

The characteristic feature of this diet is the lack of common sense and abundance of other minerals. It has been proved by many experiments that it is possible in this manner to influence the composition and functions of body juices and tissue.

Salts and ions are present in the sound organism in an absolutely distinct ratio. Since the ions coöperate and counteract each other in a very complicated manner, a change in one point of the electrolytic system suffices to disturb the order, according to Loeb, Spiro, Kraus, Zondek, Arnoldi, Wollheim. It is known that the nature of the cell colloids, the solution and precipitation of protein, surface tension, excitability of the nervous system (especially of the vegetative nervous system), hydration and dehydration of the tissue and many other features depend upon the presence of certain ions. Calcium dehydrates, acidulates and stimulates the secretion of ammonia (Spiro) and therefore plays an important part in the fight against inflammation. In disease, the physiologic equilibrium of the ions is disturbed in accordance with the changed function. It may also be changed from the outside, especially through food, and this change, in turn, influences cell and tissue function.

"Gerson Diet." Difference Between "Gerson-Herrmansdorf-Sauerbruch's Diet" and "Gerson Diet."

Gerson decreases the intake of protein considerably, giving only 67 grams per day, 12 grams of which are vegetable protein.

these proteins are sometimes eliminated, for instance in anemia, hypertonia, eczema, acne, etc., by inserting days with a very low protein diet. These rigorous days accelerate the cure greatly. In some cases, it is necessary to insert protein days.

Another difference from Sauerbruch's diet is the use of vegetable and fruit juices. Not only beer, tea, coffee and wine, but soups of various kinds, water, lemonades, etc., are severely forbidden. The entire caloric intake is supplied by vegetable and fruit juices, of which several liters are consumed daily. These juices, by their vitamin and mineral content, stimulate the cellular function together with the intake of 50 grams of raw fruits, 50 grams of raw salad, 3 eggs and 30 grams of cod-liver oil.

Besides tuberculosis of the lungs, kidneys, larynx and skin, hemiparesis figures most frequently among the diseases treated and cured, according to Gerson. He states that the entire diet therapy is indicated with this disease and it has the promptest and most brilliant results.

The healing of lupus by the salt-free diet induced Gerson to try this diet in other skin diseases. He was the first to treat psoriasis and observed extensive improvements and cures not observed with any other treatment. He believes the effect is due to the dissolution of the infiltrations by the diet. Independent of Gerson, Ruete and Axmann drew attention to this effect of the diet in diseases of the skin. Gerson says that keloids regress in a really surprising manner. They become soft, flat and of a normal color. Theoretically, one may assume solution and elimination of the salts deposited in these changed tissues. The origin of the scars plays no role. Pleural indurations, peritonitic adhesions, etc., react quite favorably in Gerson's experience.

The favorable result in multiple sclerosis may also be due to the solution of scars in the central nervous system. There is no question of a specific effect. The diet naturally has no effect if the nerve tissue is destroyed.

Gerson treated 2 cases of tabes associated with lancinating pains, 3 associated with gastric crises and 5 cases of luetic aortitis. The patients were relieved of the painful symptoms. In 2 of the cases the Wassermann reaction became negative.

Gerson noted that many other diseases reacted favorably without being possible to explain the effect. The vague phrase of "alteration of the constitution" must suffice. It is probably a question of change in the mineral metabolism and the entire internal secretion. In several individuals, physiologic salt seems in a general way to inhibit or injure the cellular function. By its withdrawal and the simultaneous administration of various vitamins, the cellular function is improved and stimulated, and the injuries are more or less healed.

vised.

fruit (citrus and southern fruit, almonds and nuts alternately with the other fruits, which can be used freely)

Advised—Continued.

Vegetables, prepared with fresh butter or fresh oil, *cooked* in their own juice, without sugar or flour, freely one to two a day

Green salads, tomatoes, etc., without vinegar

Brown eggs, 2 to 3 daily (best taken with lemon or orange)

Vegetable juices, raw, as much as possible, prepared according to prescription; to be sipped very slowly. (Beginning 3 glasses a day, slowly increasing to 6 to 8 glasses)

Fruit juices, 3 glasses a day

Omit.

Table salt

Tobacco (even one cigarette a day is strictly forbidden)

Alcohol (except absinthe, Malaga, cognac, etc.)

Coffee (except black coffee as a cardiac stimulant)

Tea (except absinthe tea, etc., in case of intestinal disturbance)

Water, soda water, lemonades, mineral waters of all kinds

Soups

Whipped cream and cream as a beverage

Pepper, vinegar, mustard

Conserves of all kinds

Salted or smoked fish, sardines, sardelles, salmon, caviar

Chocolate and cocoa

Salted cheese, practically all kinds of cheese, except cottage cheese

Sugar (except about 20 grams per week for special treats)

Honey (except about 50 grams per week on special permission)

Limit.

Milk or buttermilk, 1 glass per day, about 200 grams

Flour, rice, Cream of Wheat, etc., in the amounts given in the weekly average

Meat and fish (each once a week). The 100 grams permitted may be given in smaller rations on two or three days. On the other hand, meat and fish may be eliminated. An increase is only exceptionally indicated

Potatoes, despite their carbohydrate content, should be eaten at least three times a week, baked in the skin (forbidden in case of obesity)

Bread, salt-free bread (high in proteins), salt-free Graham bread, pumpernickel, etc. On prescription, 40 to 80 grams per day, somewhat more for physical workers

Oatmeal, once or twice a day (40 grams of oatmeal with 10 grams of butter according to the case, either forbidden or allowed)

Puddings, eggs, sweetened dishes, ice-cream (on prescription) each once a week (about 100 grams)

Cottage cheese, on prescription, 10 to 50 grams daily (to be forbidden on the strict days)

Sample Menus.

In the following tables, the sodium chloride is calculated according to Strauss's average:

Daily.	Amount.	Salt content,
	gm.	mg.
Milk	250	400
Cream	10	15
Cottage cheese	20	40
Butter (unsalted)	100	30
Person bread	60	6
Potatoes	300	150
Oatmeal	40	60
Oil	25	
Vegetables	500	550
Fruit	500	150
Brown eggs	4	32

Total 1433 mg.

Weekly.	Amount.	Salt content,
		mg.
Cream	150 grams	195
Egg	1	35
Yolk of egg	1	3
Sugar	20 grams	20
Honey	50 grams	
Cream of Wheat	50 grams	3
Meat	100 grams	130
Fish	70 grams	66
Flour of wheat	35 grams	3
Rice	50 grams	31
Almonds	100 grams	40
Nuts	100 grams	110
Prunes, etc.	200 grams	240

Sum of weekly amount: 876 mg. $\div 7 = 125$ mg. daily

Sum of daily amount: 1433 mg. daily

1558 mg. daily

The total intake of calories is distributed:

Proteins . . . 67 grams = 275 Calories = 10 per cent

Fats . . . 170 grams = 1581 Calories = 56 per cent
(without cod-liver oil)

Carbohydrates 235 grams = 964 Calories = 34 per cent

Suggestions.—With this diet, which is given in all of the mild cases, the patient receives 2820 Calories daily in the weekly average. On the basis of these values, the diet may be called somewhat lower in calories than the average normal diet, but very rich in fats.

poor in carbohydrates and with a moderate protein content, rich in vitamins of all kinds, but poor in sodium chloride, the amount of physiological salt being below the upper limit of Normal "rigorous degree" and somewhat above Strauss's rigorous restriction of physiologic salt. All its components form a complex diet, according to Gerson's experience, furnishes the optimal properties for healing and for the permanence of the healing. Clashes in this diet often interfere with the effect, except the systematic insertion of days with an entirely different diet. These, especially the raw diet days, seem to act as a stimulant to metabolism. The raw diet days are characterized by prohibition of cheese, meat, fish, all dishes containing or prepared with carbohydrates, and cooked vegetables (except baked potatoes, which may be eaten with the skin, maximum 200 grams per day). Not more than 40 grams of bread are allowed on these days. In order to stimulate the diuresis, much apple juice and lemons are given. In many cases, the insertion of such days at the beginning of treatment is very favorable. These days being also low in calories (fast days) reduce the consumption of protein still further, so that the average consumption of protein of an average patient is near 50 than to 60 grams.

Lupus Erythematosus. — **Discussion.** — The author recently observed very striking results in several cases of lupus erythematosus and erythema figuratum perstans, both of which are regarded as being due to some focus of infection, either streptococcic or tuberculous, with the use of a diet for two weeks consisting of "total" exclusion of sodium chloride, and the use of vegetables, raw or slightly cooked, vegetable juices, either raw or extracted without boiling, fruits, and a suitable salt substitute. An insufficient number of cases has been observed to justify any final conclusions. Refer to Salt-poor Diet.

Urbach has personally observed good results in some cases of lupus erythematosus by the use of the salt-restricted diet of Salt-poor Diet and Herrmansdorfer, although other cases have failed to respond. He cites a number of other observers who have obtained favorable results by this diet.

At least three types of lupus erythematosus are recognized: chronic discoid, subacute disseminated and acute disseminated. The latter is usually associated with fever, polyserositis, kidney damage and often ends fatally. Crude liver extract intragluteally in a dose of 2 or 3 cc. two or three times a week is beneficial in the first two types. Gold intravenously or bismuth intramuscularly may be used in the first two types but not in the acute disseminated. Ultraviolet light is harmful in all types. Removal of obvious foci of infection is recommended in the first two types but not in the third until adequate supportive measures such as liver therapy, diet, transfusions, etc. have improved the patient's general condition. On the basis of preliminary work Burgess has felt that vitamin E may be of value in this disease.

Moniliasis. — **Discussion.** — Infection of the skin with the yeast fungus, monilia, may produce a variety of clinical manifestations.

ions. Nearly all of them however are characterized by involvement of flexural folds. Involvement of large flexural folds as infra-mammary, axillary, intergluteal, crotch, etc. is spoken of as intertrigo. It may be produced by other causes than monilia infection. Chronic paronychia and interdigital erosion between fingers is caused by monilia in association with prolonged immersion of the hands in soapy water as in washing dishes, clothes, etc. Thrush is the name of monilia infection of the mouth, characterized by bright red areas with overlying detachable whitish thick plaques. Pruritus vulvæ, pruritus scroti and pruritus ani may be due to monilia infection as well as to other causes. See also p. 270.

In all cases of monilia infection disturbance in sugar metabolism should be suspected since yeasts grow readily in the presence of sugar. No amount of local therapy with sulphur, etc. will cure monilia if an associated diabetes is not diagnosed and controlled.

Xanthoma Lipoidica Diabeticorum.—See under Xanthoma (p. 314).

Erythema multiforme.—Reference should be made to p. 486.

Pemphigus.—**Discussion.**—This is one of the most serious skin diseases, the majority of cases ending fatally in spite of all remedial measures. The disease is characterized by an eruption of blebs and blisters, usually arising on perfectly sound skin, later rupturing and leaving crusting crusts. Redness may develop secondarily about the blebs and occasionally precedes them. This is in marked contrast to the vesicular type of erythema multiforme in which the redness is primary and the bullæ secondary. Often the earliest lesions of pemphigus occur in the mouth following some dental work. The disease may progress rapidly with a fatal termination within one to six months but may become chronic, lasting over a number of years with periods of exacerbation and remission. In severe cases large areas of the body are denuded, so that there is profound toxemia and shock as in extensive burns. Fever is usually present. Lesions involving the mouth and throat often seriously interfere with nutrition. As the disease progresses there is a tendency for the renal function to become impaired, as evidenced by the phthalein output and blood nitrogen retention. There is also a definite chloride retention. These phenomena are probably due to toxemia. Pels Machet have demonstrated the presence of a peculiar toxic substance in the blood in pemphigus which is capable of inhibiting the growth of certain plant seedlings, and on this basis have developed a cytopharmacological test for the diagnosis of pemphigus. Several varieties of pemphigus are recognized, but the one previously described, namely pemphigus vulgaris, is the most common.

The cause of this condition is entirely unknown. Recently the observations of Ludy and Devalin, that viosterol in large doses has apparently cured several cases, suggests the possibility of a vitamin deficiency. The author has also obtained gratifying results in 3 cases of pemphigus by the use of viosterol in conjunction with other measures. There is some evidence pointing to the possibility that

pemphigus may be due to a peculiar type of toxic reaction to focus of infection. The foci of infection should certainly be sought and eliminated, if possible, and a high-vitamin diet would appear to be rational as a means of improving resistance to infection and sustaining nutrition in the presence of such an overwhelming anemia. Refer to the Vitamins and the Vitamin Deficiencies.

A filtrable virus has been held by some to be a possible cause of pemphigus. The author can corroborate several recent reports of the efficacy of sulfanilamide and more recently sulfadiazine in conjunction with prompt removal of infected teeth, tonsils and other obvious foci of infection. At least 5 cases of what appeared to be a hopeless condition have been cured by these combined procedures although a number of other patients have not responded to this program.

Suggestions.—In view of the fact that cases of pernicious anemia give a phytopharmacologic test similar to that in pemphigus, and that liver therapy is valuable in pernicious anemia, it would seem not only rational to administer liver by various means in pemphigus but also to give liver extract. The diet in general should be of high-caloric and high-vitamin content, and should contain an abundance of proteins in view of the pronounced loss of proteins in the serous exudate from the extensive raw surfaces. The situation is similar to that in burns. In cases where mouth involvement interferes with eating, protein hydrolysates may be given either by mouth or by vein. Intravenous glucose and saline and blood or plasma transfusions may be needed to maintain an adequate blood protein level. According to Ludy and Devalin, vitamin D should be given in massive doses from 10 drops to a teaspoonful three times a day. This, of course, is a tremendous dose and would be justified only in a disease with such a serious prognosis. These large doses should not be continued for more than several weeks and should be discontinued upon the appearance of any untoward reactions. Both Ludy and Devalin and the author have employed such doses with no apparent harm and with distinct benefit. Urbach favors the use of small doses of insulin to improve nutrition.

The use of sodium chloride is a matter of debate. Some investigators have felt that cases were benefited by the Sauerbruch-Helmansdorfer salt-restricted diet; whereas Urbach and others, feeling that salt retention represents a form of defense reaction on the part of the body against excessive destruction of protein, have observed temporary improvement by the daily administration of 4 or 5 grams of sodium chloride. It would seem logical to administer sodium chloride in order to prevent salt depletion as the result of loss from extensive raw oozing surfaces. On the other hand, when evidence of renal impairment becomes sufficiently apparent, it would seem wise to adopt the approved methods and dietary measures appropriate for kidney disease. Refer to Bright's Disease.

Perleche.—This condition, which consists of redness, fissuring and crusting at the commissures of the mouth, was considered by early writers to be caused by a streptococcus; more recently monilia and

has been regarded as etiologic, since it can usually be demonstrated in scrapings examined directly after maceration in 40 per cent alcohol and by cultures on Saboraud's medium. Lesions also usually respond to local treatment for monilia.

During the past several years, however, several investigators have shown that perleche-like lesions accompanied by seborrheic dermatitis-like lesions of the naso-labial folds, cheilitis and glossitis are associated with riboflavin deficiency. This brings up the question of further investigation into the vitamin background of the better known monilial infections, as well as seborrheic dermatitis, due to Riboflavin Deficiency. Vitamin B therapy does not, however, clear up all cases of perleche. Local therapy with sulphur or other fungicidal medication may be required. Some cases of perleche are caused by ill-fitting dentures, especially in cases where the gums have shrunk and the upper lip overhangs the lower lip forming an exaggerated fold at the corners of the mouth which are continuously wet with saliva. Only correction of the dentures with proper "bite" will relieve such cases.

Pigmentation.—Discussion.—Several anomalies of pigmentation may be influenced to some degree by diet. Carotinemia has already been discussed. Chloasma usually occurs on the face of women as ill-defined blotchy brownish areas. The cause is unknown but various disturbances of the utero-ovarian system have been blamed. Large doses of ascorbic acid have been helpful in some cases. Vitiligo which consists of patchy loss of pigment is of unknown etiology. Hathaway has obtained favorable results with administration of large doses of vitamin B complex and hydrochloric acid over a period of 1 to 2 years. Some observers have suggested that the pigmentation in Addison's disease may be helped to some degree by massive doses of ascorbic acid.

Pruritus.—Discussion.—Generalized pruritus may be due to a great variety of causes, including food allergy, irritation from external sources such as woolen underclothing, excessive use of soap and water, etc., and such metabolic disorders as diabetes, certain diseases of the liver and gallbladder, defective kidney function, hormone deficiencies, etc. The dietary management therefore depends upon the etiology. A great many cases of generalized pruritus with or without eruption are caused by a combination of senile or extremely sensitive skin, cool dry weather and the excessive use of soap and water, the so-called Pruritus Hiemalis. Scabies, pediculosis, etc. must always be ruled out.

Psoriasis.—Discussion.—Although the exact cause of this disease is unknown, its course can be modified by dietary measures. Since many cases of psoriasis are intimately associated with focal infections these should receive prompt attention. The disease, at best, is extremely rebellious to treatment and most capricious in its behavior, frequently disappearing spontaneously, but usually sooner or later recurring to a greater or less degree. It does not appear to be contagious although occasionally one or two relatives may be affected. Endocrine therapy is under investigation. Some

cases are benefited by administration of thyroid. Anæmia is occasionally an important factor.

Some cases of psoriasis are associated with a hypochloræmia and occasionally hyperglycemia is noted. The dietary management of these cases would naturally be directed toward the correction of these pathologic changes (reference should be made to diets elsewhere). Some cases of psoriasis react favorably to a restriction of protein and several investigators have observed benefit by an exclusion of sodium chloride. Some investigators have claimed that a disturbance in fat metabolism occurs in psoriasis and have advised a restriction of fats in the diet, but others dispute these findings. Urbach feels that in the dietary management of psoriasis a restriction of caloric intake is more important than restriction of protein or fat per se. Obviously it would not be desirable or practical to maintain a low caloric intake for any great length of time.

Omit.

Meats, cheese, eggs, nuts, alcohol, salt, candy, sweet drinks, mushrooms, fish of all kinds

Limit.

Sugar, pastries, milk, navy beans, kidney beans and lentils

NOTE.—No salt and very little sugar should be used in the preparation or serving of the meals. As flounder and white perch are lowest in protein they may be judiciously infiltrated into the diet at a later period.

Suggestions.—This rigid low-protein diet should not be prescribed for an indefinite period. It is better to reserve it for the severe and extensive cases and for not more than a month or two at a time, allowing a less severe diet containing meat or fish three or four times a week, and occasionally eggs, between periods of restriction. The diet should contain an abundance of vitamins. It is desirable to have the patient at rest in a hospital, sanatorium or health resort while on the diet. Not only is a slowing up of metabolic processes helpful but the relief from psychic turmoil and nervous tension characterizing so many cases of psoriasis, which attends a change of environment, is of considerable value.

Local medication is of considerable importance in the management of psoriasis. Generalized exposures to ultra-violet light either from the sun or from the quartz or carbon arc lamp are usually beneficial although some acute and extensively involved cases are aggravated. If light therapy is contemplated it should be begun with small doses. According to Goeckerman, the application of crude coal-tar ointment, which can be cleaned off just before light treatment is given, enhances the effect of the light. Reducing agents such as anthralin or chrysarobin in weak dilution are of value.

Seborrhea, Seborrheic Dermatitis.—**Discussion.**—Seborrhea is a term applied to an excessive secretion of oil. This usually occurs on those parts of the body where the oil glands are most highly developed.

developed, such as the central portion of the face, forehead, scalp, central portion of the chest and upper back. With a background of seborrhea, several conditions may develop, such as acne vulgaris and seborrheic dermatitis. The latter is characterized by salmon-colored to yellowish macules usually covered by greasy scales; the condition is frequently seen extending below the hair along the temples and sides of the scalp, and often involves the vestibules and meatus of the ears.

There is undoubtedly a microbic element in this condition, as evidenced by the almost specific response to ointments containing sulfur and salicylic acid. Various organisms have been found, including cocci, bacilli and yeast-like parasites, and it is possible that any one or a combination of these, in conjunction with a favorable soil characterized by excessive oiliness, may produce the disease. Endocrine disturbance may be an important factor also, as seborrhea nearly always occurs to some degree during the age of puberty and adolescence, but no satisfactory method of attacking the condition from this angle has yet been found.

From a dietary point of view, the indications outlined under the heading of acne vulgaris are applicable to seborrheic dermatitis. These procedures may help in the handling of these conditions, but they themselves can hardly be regarded as curative. There is a growing impression that disturbances in gastro-intestinal function and possibly some of the vitamin B factors may be of importance in this condition.

Sarcoid.—**Discussion.**—Refer to use of vitamin D₂ under Lupus vulgaris.

Test Diets in Food Allergy.—**Discussion.**—Hypersensitiveness to proteins, or atopic allergy, manifests itself in certain well-recognized clinical symptoms, chief among which are eczema, urticaria, angioneurotic edema, asthma and hay fever. In addition to these, there are a number of less commonly recognized symptoms which may be allergic in origin, such as migraine, epilepsy, nasal congestion, "auto-intoxication," some cases of canker sores, pruritus of the hands and pruritus vulvæ, gastric distress, and various chronic and acute abdominal manifestations which at times may simulate acute surgical conditions. It must be clearly emphasized that the disorders enumerated are by no means always due to protein hypersensitiveness and some of them are probably only rarely due to such causes, but the very fact that all of them have been clearly demonstrated to be due to allergy in certain cases justifies the consideration of this cause in the absence of any other definiteologic findings.

Pollens, dust, animal emanations, face powders, etc., are probably the commonest causes of asthma and hay fever and the causal relationship can usually be demonstrated by means of either the scratch or the intradermal test. The other clinical manifestations mentioned, when due to allergy (and again it must be emphasized that there are many other possible causes) are more often due to hypersensitiveness to food proteins. Certain cases of asthma and

of perennial hay fever may also be due to food proteins, and cases of eczema and urticaria may be due to pollens, powder, animal emanations. While scratch tests and intradermal are of value in determining the causal agent in many cases of allergy, it has become increasingly apparent that many patients who are definitely hypersensitive to certain food proteins fail to react to scratch or intradermal tests even when performed with potent allergens and in a proper manner. Conversely, positive scratch tests have been recorded in patients in whom sensitization to the reacting food was not clinically present as indicated by failure of the suspected foods when ingested to produce symptoms.

The need for a more reliable test in the detection of food allergy has led to the development of test diets. Originally, this involved a period of starvation or a diet limited to one or two foods, followed by which one or two foods were added every few days and the effect noted. The disadvantage of this method was the difficulty in securing the full co-operation of the patient owing to the unpalatability of such a restricted diet, the long time required to cover the list of common foods and the occasional undesirable effects of an unbalanced ration.

Rowe has been a pioneer in establishing the technique of the test diet on a scientific and practical basis. In one series of 175 patients in whom sensitization to certain foods was proved by test diets and in whom the cutaneous reactions were tested, approximately 50 per cent of the patients gave negative reactions. In this group by far the greatest number of patients were sensitive to wheat, eggs and milk. In order of frequency, 57 per cent were sensitive to wheat, 35 per cent to eggs and 31 per cent to milk. Only 10 per cent of this group of patients were sensitive to chocolate, which was next in order of frequency, while the shellfish which are usually regarded as being common offenders caused trouble in a very small proportion, 3 per cent of the patients showing an intolerance to lobster, 2 per cent to crab, 3 per cent to shrimp, etc.

Rowe's diets, of which there are several modifications, attempt to place the patient on a well-balanced, palatable regimen, at the same time excluding the foods which clinical experience has shown to be the most frequent offenders. Three or four such diets containing mutually exclusive proteins may be tried in rotation or combination as the history, clinical aspects of the case, or skin tests indicate. It is recommended that a patient be kept on a given diet at least a week or ten days before changing or adding any other foods, unless the diet in question causes a definite exacerbation of symptoms, in which case it should be abandoned. The diets, while reasonably well-balanced and palatable, require a certain exercise of will power, especially if one is eating away from home, as milk, eggs and wheat are omitted from all of them. This also involves foregoing butter and cream. Considerable vigilance must be exercised as these three substances are used so frequently, especially in restaurant cooking; for instance, egg-white in glazes

in types of rolls, egg shells in clearing coffee, wheat flour in browned chicken or thickening soups or gravies, butter in cooking vegetables, etc. Since even minute amounts of protein which a person may be sensitive are often just as likely to produce allergic symptoms as a larger amount, rigid adherence to the diets must be insisted upon.

If the symptoms disappear on the test diet regimen after one to two weeks, one or the other of the diets may be added to the first. If the patient continues symptom-free, fruits, vegetables and meats may be added two or three at a time every three or four days. First of all wheat, eggs and milk may be added at weekly intervals, and the effects noted.

In occasional instances will be found where a patient is sensitive to nearly all members of a certain group of foods, such as all fruits, meats, etc. Special test diets may be devised to meet such a situation. More recently Rowe has suggested a cereal-free diet, including all grains and utilizing soy bean flour, potato flour and cocoa for starches, as a beginning diet in average cases. This diet also excludes milk and eggs.

The following three diets will be found useful in detecting foods to which a person may be hypersensitive:

	Diet No. 1.	Diet No. 2.	Diet No. 3.
<i>Cereals</i> . . .	Rice Puffed Rice	Corn Corn flakes Hominy Tapioca	Rye
<i>Bread</i> . . .	Rice biscuit	Corn pone	Rye-krisp
<i>Meat or fish</i> .	Lamb	Bacon Chicken	Beef
<i>Vegetables</i> .	Lettuce Spinach Carrots	Squash Asparagus Peas Artichokes	Tomatoes Beets String beans
<i>Fruits and jams and fruit drinks</i>	Lemon Pears Peaches	Pineapple Apricots Prunes	Grapefruit Apples Grapes
<i>Miscellaneous</i>	Sugar Olive oil Salt Gelatin Syrup made from cane sugar Maple flavoring Olives (unstuffed)	Sugar Mazola oil Salt Karo corn syrup	Sugar Wesson oil or Crisco Salt Gelatin Syrup made from cane-sugar flavored with maple

In Rowe's experience, desensitization to a given protein is difficult to achieve by feeding graduated quantities of the food, but

occasionally occurs spontaneously when the food is entirely excluded from the diet for a long period of time. Prolonged heating occasionally modifies the protein molecule so that symptoms do not occur when the food is ingested. Refer also to Exudative Diarrhea.

Recipes.

The following are tested recipes taken from Rowe's "Food Allergies."

(a) *Rice biscuit* prepared by the Battle Creek Sanitarium, a bread made according to the following recipe:

2 cups of rice flour	1 tablespoonful of sugar
3 teaspoonfuls of baking powder	$\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoonful of salt
2 tablespoonfuls of bacon fat or olive oil	1 cup of water

Sift dry ingredients and mix in the bacon fat. Add water to make a firm dough. Bake in a loaf pan in a rather hot oven.

(b) *Fruit preserves* specified in these diets may be pure jams or preserves made at home of fresh, canned or dried fruits.

(c) *Rice gruel* made by cooking rice to a soft mass, adding water to consistency of thick cream and sugar and salt to taste. Lemon juice or pineapple or other specified fruit juices may be used to dilute it if desired. Serve hot as a substitute for milk.

(d) *Rice-peach pudding*. (A similar pudding made with tapioca or cornstarch can be used in Diet No. 2.)

2 halves of peaches (canned)	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of cooked rice
$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice	2 teaspoonfuls of sugar

Add sugar and peach juice to rice, cook three minutes, add peaches (sliced). Chill and serve. (1 cup or 2 servings.)

(e) *Corn pone*:

$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of cornmeal	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of boiling water
$\frac{1}{3}$ teaspoonful of salt	

Sift cornmeal and salt, add boiling water to make a firm mixture. Shape into thin cakes and place in a pan well greased with bacon fat or Mazola oil. Bake in a hot oven ten to twenty minutes.

(f) *Rye-rice bread*:

$1\frac{1}{3}$ cups of ground rye flour	10 teaspoonfuls of baking powder
$\frac{2}{3}$ cup of rice flour	2 teaspoonfuls of olive oil
6 teaspoonfuls of sugar	$1\frac{1}{3}$ cups of water
$\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoonful of salt	

Bake in a loaf pan in a moderate oven for forty minutes.

(g) *Cornmeal, rye and rice bread*:

1 pint of warm water	1 yeast cake dissolved in water (warm)
1 heaping teaspoonful of salt	
1 cup of rice flour	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of Karo syrup
1 cup of cooked cornmeal	

To the mixture add rye flour to make a thick dough and let it rise. Mold and place in the pan to rise again. Bake in a moderate oven for thirty-five to forty minutes. This bread will stay moist several days when well wrapped with oiled paper.

Crisco butter made by adding fresh carrot juice for coloring, Crisco and salt to taste, or by adding yellow coloring and confectioners' butter flavor and salt.

Recepts 1 and 2 may be prescribed together or either added to the diet. The following breads may be used in such case:

Corn and Rice Muffins:

$1\frac{1}{3}$ cups of rice flour	$\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoonful of salt
$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of cornmeal	10 teaspoonfuls of baking powder
$\frac{1}{2}$ tablespoonful of sugar	1 cup of water
$\frac{1}{4}$ cup of olive oil	

Bake for about three minutes. Put in small-sized muffin tins and bake immediately in a quick oven (450° F.). Have pan smoking hot.

NOTE.—Using the small-sized muffin tins, $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter, makes a lighter and better raised muffin.

Rice Flake Muffins:

1 cup of rice flakes	1 teaspoonful of salt
1 cup of rice flour	5 teaspoonfuls of baking powder
$\frac{1}{2}$ cup of cornmeal	2 tablespoonfuls of corn oil
1 tablespoonful of sugar	$1\frac{1}{4}$ cups of water

METHOD.—Crush rice flakes, sift other dry ingredients together, sift other dry ingredients together, stir and put into well-oiled muffin tins or add 3 teaspoonfuls of baking powder and make into a small cake. Bake muffins twenty to thirty-five minutes in moderate oven.

Ulcers, etc.—Discussion.—Dietary management may constitute an all-important factor in the proper healing of certain types of ulcers, wounds, burns and even chronic roentgen dermatitis. Ascorbic acid plays an important rôle in the physiology of mesodermal tissue and must be present in adequate amounts to insure proper healing. In chronic ulcers and burns there is a considerable loss of protein which again is necessary for reparative processes. This loss should be made up by adequate protein in the form of milk or protein hydrolysates. A number of authorities as quoted by Urbach in "Skin Diseases, Nutrition and Metabolism" have observed good results in chronic infected ulcers and even in severe roentgen dermatitis through the employment of the Sauerbruch-Mansdorfer diet.

Urticaria and Angioneurotic Edema.—Discussion.—One should not assume that all cases of urticaria or angioneurotic edema are due to food sensitization, although this undoubtedly constitutes a prominent cause. Various insects such as the flea, bedbug and acarus species may produce, in addition to their own characteristic lesions, the widely scattered typical urticarial wheals in persons who have become hypersensitive to their bites. Urticaria and angioneurotic edema are not infrequently the expression of a bacterial allergy originating in some focus of infection such as the sinuses, tonsils, teeth, etc. Drugs, heat and cold, pollens, endocrine disorders, gastro-intestinal derangements and even syphilis may account for the recurrent recurring attacks of urticaria.

Since some cases of urticaria are due to food allergy, skin or elimination diets should be employed as soon as possible. A diet prescribed in accordance with the findings. Skin tests frequently fail to offer any clues in urticaria and it should be emphasized that in chronic urticaria bacterial allergy from a focal infection is more often the cause than food allergy. Certain foods are probably greater offenders than others in the production of urticaria, and in the absence of specific information from tests, etc., one may outline a tentative diet. Refer also to Allergy and Exudative Diathesis.

Omit.

Shell-fish, fish, canned food, raw fruits, alcohol, spiced or smoked meats, candy, sweet drinks, nuts, cheese and pork

Limit.

Pastry, ice-cream, meats, cake

Suggestions.—The diet should contain an abundance of milk and calcium is usually beneficial in this disorder. Calcium may be administered orally or intravenously. The food should consist largely of cooked vegetables, cooked fruits, meats such as beef, lamb or chicken, and an abundance of water. Epinephrine and ephedrin are useful adjuvants in controlling the eruption. Diphenhydramyl or pyribenzamine in doses of 50 mgs. 3 or 4 times in 24 hours are frequently of decided benefit. The bowels should be kept open. Refer to the list of Foods Highest in Calcium.

Xanthoma.—**Discussion.**—Four types of xanthoma are recognized: xanthoma palpebrarum (or xanthelasma), xanthoma tuberosum multiplex, and xanthoma diabeticorum, and xanthoma disseminatum. Xanthoma palpebrarum may occur alone on the eyelids or in association with the other varieties of xanthoma and it is likely that all four types are closely related, representing disturbances in the lipid metabolism, yet only the diabetic type is amenable to any extent to internal treatment. Recent investigation has shown that in xanthoma tuberosum multiplex the total lipoids are not necessarily increased but that there is a disturbance in the ratio between the lipid substances. Since the mechanism regulating this balance is not known, dietetic treatment for this variety of xanthoma has not been established. In cases showing a definite increase in total blood lipids, a low-fat diet is indicated. Some benefit may be obtained in certain cases of both xanthoma palpebrarum and xanthoma tuberosum multiplex by fat restriction. Cases accompanied by gall-bladder disease should receive appropriate treatment, both dietetically and otherwise.

Xanthoma diabeticorum which is probably the rarest of the four types is more acute in its development. The lesions may be generalized but are most frequent on the extensor surfaces of the elbows, knees, buttocks, hands and face. The early lesions are yellowish or cream-colored conical papules which increase in size frequently forming confluent areas. A narrow reddish inflammatory areola occurs about each lesion.

eruption is associated with diabetes and the treatment is the same as for that disease. As the diabetes is controlled by diet and insulin the eruption usually disappears. Thyroid extract is sometimes a useful adjuvant and fractional doses of Roentgen-ray cause the lesions to disappear more rapidly.

Erythema disseminatum is usually not associated with elevated lipids and its prognosis is not too good.

Xanthosis Lipoidica Diabeticorum.—This is another relatively rare type of skin disorder associated with a deposit of lipoid material in the skin. It is a skin disorder associated with a deposit of lipoid material in the skin apparently secondary to a toxic injury producing a grade necrosis but usually without ulceration. The lesions are most commonly on the shins and consist of well defined patches having a translucent yellowish appearance. Most cases are associated with diabetes. Treatment is unsatisfactory although control of the diabetes may prevent further development of lesions. Vitamin E intragluteally deserves a trial in view of an interesting case recently reported by Dixon.

DIABETES MELLITUS.

JAMES J. SHORT, M.D.

Introduction.—1. **Importance of Diet.**—The choice of a proper diet for the diabetic is a matter of as great importance as ever. In fact, proper dietetic management constitutes by far the greatest part of the treatment. The discovery of insulin has served to enhance rather than diminish the need for careful study of the individual in order to provide a diet having the most suitable proportions of carbohydrates, proteins and fats.

Undernutrition.—Although recent experiences have done much to change time-honored conceptions of what constitutes an ideal dietetic regimen, there are two fundamental principles which are generally agreed upon and emphasized—undernutrition and the general avoidance of concentrated sugars. Undernutrition is generally regarded as the foundation principle of successful treatment. This term is not meant a state of continual semi-starvation, but rather a caloric intake sufficient to maintain the body weight—preferably somewhat below—the general average for age, sex and height.

Pathology and Response to Diet.—A brief consideration of the physiology and pathology of diabetes will aid in understanding varying responses to certain diets and thus assist in making the necessary adjustments. Although recent investigations have demonstrated that one or more of the endocrines may be factors in the production or modification of a diabetic state, it is a well-established fact that destruction or severe impairment of the islands of Langerhans in the pancreas will result in diabetes. Such destruction can be produced experimentally by anterior pituitary extracts, by a chemical such as alloxan or by special feeding procedures. It may also result from a hereditary tendency to degeneration, a pancreatitis secondary to a biliary tract infection, arteriosclerosis, or from

"overstrain" in long-continued overnutrition. Fatty infiltration of the pancreas is frequently present at autopsy, though whether this is the sequel of a previous pancreatitis or a concomitant general obesity is often uncertain. Certain it is that obesity is a pre-diabetic condition and a predisposing factor in a large percentage of cases. Fortunately Nature has been liberal in the proportion of the highly important Langerhansian cells, so that approximately 10 per cent of their total are sufficient to protect against diabetes. Their total destruction would result in "total diabetes," a condition which, though approached, is hardly ever seen clinically. Theoretically, in a case totally incapable of producing insulin, no improvement in carbohydrate utilization could be expected unless an amount of insulin sufficient to meet the entire requirements of the body would necessarily have to be provided.

4. Effect of Diet on Function of Islands of Langerhans.—At autopsy there are found cases in which the anatomic damage seems insufficient to account for the development of diabetes. These are probably the patients who during life were capable of marked improvement under proper dietetic management. Evidence has been forthcoming to indicate that under adverse conditions marked functional depression of the island cells may ensue. The elimination of carbohydrates from the diet for as short a period as two weeks may result in marked loss of glucose tolerance in normal individuals. The feeding of an exclusive meat diet to two individuals for one month resulted in a temporary condition which from laboratory criteria was essentially indistinguishable from true diabetes. From such evidence it is obvious that island cells may become functionally depressed, though anatomically intact, and thus temporarily incapable of responding immediately to sudden demands placed upon them. In non-diabetic individuals the return to a diet containing carbohydrates for a short time is sufficient to restore normal carbohydrate tolerance. Most diabetics differ from normals only in degree; therefore, a certain amount of carbohydrate in the diet is essential. Infections and toxemias also have a depressing effect on pancreatic function, so that Joslin has deplored the tendency to overfeed patients convalescing from infectious conditions, believing that to do so places an undue strain on the already impaired pancreatic function and thus predisposes to diabetes. There is still no absolute agreement as to just what the carbohydrate component of a diet should be for diabetes, but the general tendency for the past few years or more has been for the use of increasing proportions. It seems wiser to treat each case as an individual problem, bearing in mind certain definite objectives, than to lay down hard and fast rules for all.

Objectives in Diabetic Management.—1. "**Desugarize**" the Patient.—Most patients when first seen by a physician have large amounts of sugar in both blood and urine, and suffer from attendant symptoms such as polyuria, polydipsia, dehydration, weakness, loss of weight, pruritus and furunculosis. Occasionally acetoneuria is present, more often not. Little improvement can be expected until

glycosuria is controlled and the blood sugar reduced to more normal levels. Three methods of "desugarizing" can be used: (a) primary elimination or marked reduction of carbohydrate ingestion, or (b) use of insulin in sufficient quantities, or (c) both. It is good treatment to "desugarize" at first by the use of a carbohydrate-low diet and later to add carbohydrates as the patient's tolerance improves. Insulin may or may not be given according to indications. Equally good results can be obtained from the use of a standard diet of normally balanced food elements with administration of sufficient insulin to effect desugarization. It is not an invariable rule that, with the disappearance of glycosuria and hyperglycemia, carbohydrate tolerance undergoes coincident improvement, and other symptoms disappear. The consequent restoration of water balance affords marked symptomatic relief.

Render Urine Acetone-free.—If acetone is present when the patient is first examined, an acidosis may be threatening. A carbon dioxide combining power of the blood is advisable. As an index of improvement, however, the usual tests for acetone and diacetic acid in the urine are excellent guides. In the presence of acetone in the urine, insulin should be given. The patient is best treated in a hospital until all danger of acidosis is past. Later, the inclusion of sufficient carbohydrates in the diet, with insulin if necessary, will prevent the recurrence of a positive test for acetone. In former times, when patients were treated with a minimum of carbohydrates, it was shown by Van Slyke that cases under good control showed anywhere from four to sixteen times the normal amount of acetone in the blood. Even such levels of acetonuria are usually sufficient to give a positive reaction in the urine to the usual tests, so such cases would be considered acetone-free. Abnormal amounts, although often present, do not occur so frequently with the use of more liberal amounts of carbohydrates in the diet.

Restore Normal Weight.—It is common to have a history of marked overweight followed by a sudden and marked loss of weight. The patient may still be above ideal weight or show evidence of emaciation. An adjustment of the diet over a few weeks or months bringing the weight to a low normal is usually best for the future condition of the patient. Especially should overweight be avoided. Carbohydrate tolerance improves and danger of acidosis and other complications is much less imminent, when overnutrition and obesity are prevented. In the writer's experience, several cases which had marked glucose tolerance impairment with glycosuria and diagnosed as diabetes, had complete restoration to normal tolerance when the weight had been reduced to normal. This does not always happen, but improvement in carbohydrate utilization is the rule.

Avoid Hypoglycemia.—Hypoglycemia has accompanying symptoms which range from mild hunger and nervousness to extreme prostration, sweating, diplopia, delirium, unconsciousness, convulsions and death. In diabetic cases it occurs only in those treated with insulin and results from a lack of balance between insulin dosage and food ingestion, particularly of carbohydrates and proteins. It

has been shown that even one such attack can cause damage to the myocardium. Hypoglycemia occurs more frequently in diabetes since in the latter the blood sugar is less stable and subject to greater variations. All patients using insulin should be taught to recognize the early symptoms and immediately to ingest orange juice, corn syrup, etc. It is safer as a rule to err on the side of too much insulin rather than too much. Gradual adjustment of diet and insulin are preferable to sudden changes with attendant danger of hypoglycemia.

5. Restore Physical Fitness.—One patient, described by Sansum although in good condition, judged from laboratory and physical criteria, complained of a lack of the sense of well-being. An adjustment of the diet to a higher level of carbohydrate with a corresponding drop in the level of fat, resulted not only in marked subjective improvement, but also in an increased carbohydrate tolerance. Confirmation of Sansum's observations has since led to the use of higher carbohydrate diets than formerly. Patients usually return to feeling better on the higher carbohydrate-fat ratios provided they are kept in good control. The glucose tolerance often shows marked improvement from such a change. The explanation of this apparent paradox of an increased ability to utilize carbohydrate following its increased ingestion is found in the opening paragraph of this subject. The more nearly the proportions of carbohydrate, proteins and fats can approach the average "normal" diet with the necessity for unusual amounts of insulin, the better apparent will be the subjective mental and physical state of the patient.

6. Keep Patient Satisfied With Diet.—The use of low carbohydrate diets over long periods frequently causes patients to become dissatisfied and discouraged. Especially is this true with young patients. The longing for carbohydrates and the strong temptation to indulge—which is, after all, a normal appetite—frequently overcome their resistance and cause them to partake of forbidden articles. Much of this difficulty is obviated by a more liberal diet. The desire for highly sweetened foods is apparently not so great if a large amount of starchy foods is allowed. A metabolic mechanism unable to cope with the sudden demands of rapid sugar absorption may be able to utilize well a fairly high-starch diet which requires considerable time for digestion and absorption. It is often preferable to increase the carbohydrates in the diet, even though this means an increased dosage of insulin, to keep the patient satisfied. This is preferable to having the patient take unknown foods and thus become entirely out of adjustment.

Choice of a Diet.—**1. Caloric Requirement.**—In choosing a diet for the diabetic patient, it is well first to determine the caloric requirement. This will vary according to the physical state of the patient. If overweight, a submaintenance diet will be required. If underweight, one giving more than maintenance should be selected. A safe maintenance rule for the patient engaged in light physical activity is to allow 30 calories per kilogram (2.2 pounds) of *ideal* body weight. Or, if desired, one can determine from

weight and height of the patient, the normal surface area in square meters (refer to Obesity section), which, multiplied by the ideal number of calories per square meter per hour gives the ideal total energy requirement. The addition of 25 per cent should be allowed for light physical work, or more for greater activity. The ultimate guide to caloric requirement is the body weight taken at frequent intervals. If the patient is already of ideal weight, such weight will usually be maintained; if under- or overweight there will usually be some change in the direction of ideal weight.

Protein Requirement.—Having determined the caloric requirement, an adequate protein requirement should be calculated. Again preferable to calculate for the ideal rather than the actual weight. The protein allowance to maintain nitrogen equilibrium and prevent tissue waste is 1 gram of protein per kilogram. It is highly important that the protein requirement be fully met, and safer to exceed than to give less than the necessary amount. The amount required will usually fall between 60 and 100 gm.

Carbohydrate and Fat Adjustment.—The caloric value of the protein ($4.1 \times$ grams protein) should be subtracted from the total calories of the diet and the balance of calories made up by fats and carbohydrates. Here more leeway is permissible and one cannot be too dogmatic. A discussion of the principles here involved will be deferred in the description of the diets to follow.

Vitamin and Mineral Requirements.—Every diet prescribed for continued administration should be carefully surveyed for adequacy of vitamins and minerals. Increasing evidence is accumulating to indicate that vitamin deficiencies are more common in average Americans than formerly supposed. Present-day milling processes in the production of highly refined flours are robbing Americans of much of the greatly needed vitamin-B complex. It has been estimated that only about 9 per cent of this substance derived from grain is now present, as compared to the flours of a hundred years ago (Cowgill, 1939). Newer methods of milling, however, do promise that the wheat-germ may be retained in a white flour. Since these facts obtain in the average unrestricted American diet of today, it is to be expected that it will be all the more true where special restrictions are imposed as in diabetes. Apparently the greatest danger of inadequacy is in the B complex. Vitamin A can be stored in the body for use over long periods; C is abundant in fruits and fruit juices generally employed, while D is likewise readily available. Deficiencies in the vitamin-B group have been reported in diabetes even where the caloric needs were well supplied. It would appear that pellagra-like symptoms may be induced by the rapid metabolizing of carbohydrate stores (Sydenstricker, 1939). Dermatitis, cheilitis, delirium, and other pellagra-like symptoms seen in certain cases have been caused to subside by the administration of nicotinic acid. The so-called "protective foods," such as dairy products, eggs, green vegetables, and fruits, though excellent sources of minerals and certain other vitamins cannot be taken in sufficient quantity to compensate for the low vitamin-B concentration in

highly refined flour. It would seem wise, therefore, especially in diabetic diets, to avoid highly milled products and in certain instances to add the vitamin-B complex in the form of concentrated food adjuncts. The possibility of deficiency symptoms should always be kept in mind. Biskind has reported improvement in carbohydrate tolerance in diabetics following the large doses of the B-complex vitamins orally and parenterally. The writer has observed no such specific effect in several so treated and Biskind's suggestion of a specific effect in diabetes still lacks general confirmation.

5. Other Considerations.—Since Sansum first called attention to the favorable and quite unexpected results obtained from the use of larger amounts of carbohydrates with a compensatory diminution of fats, there has been a growing tendency on the part of students of diabetes to increase the carbohydrate component and even higher carbohydrate-fat ratios. The advantages of such a change are several, and can well be repeated here for the sake of emphasis. Briefly, they are as follows: (1) Increased carbohydrate tolerance supposedly from a stimulating effect on dormant Langerhans' cells, (2) disappearance of abnormal amounts of acetone bodies from the blood stream, (3) restoration of physical fitness as evidenced by increased mental and physical alertness and vigor, (4) greater contentment and satisfaction with the diet.

In certain cases there appears to be little or no response to increased carbohydrate ingestion, as the added amount merely appears in the urine. It may be assumed in this type of case that the island cells are either largely degenerated or are incapable of being stimulated. Three courses are open, (1) a diminution of carbohydrate to a lower level (preferably to an amount not under 100 grams); (2) an increase of insulin to balance the higher carbohydrate value, or (3) a combination of (1) and (2). The case will not respond in some measure by increased utilization of carbohydrate from a fairly high carbohydrate-fat ratio is fortunately rare. A gradual improvement in tolerance can be expected over a period of time in most cases, provided hyperglycemia and glycosuria are avoided. Persistent hyperglycemia suggests the possibility of pancreatic strain with further damage to island cells and is to be avoided at all times to prevent retrogression. Patients in whom the pancreas, presumably because of advanced degenerative lesion, is incapable of responding to the stimulus of carbohydrate ingestion will not do well on too high a carbohydrate-fat ratio. In such cases the carbohydrate tolerance may remain static or actually decrease.

Although it is probably true that relief of "strain" on an overburdened pancreas may result in improvement in function, it is equally true that too great deprivation of carbohydrate will diminish function. Joslin is of the opinion, in which the writer concurs, that 100 grams of carbohydrate is about the minimum on which a patient should be kept for any great period of time, even though during periods of study and adjustment other amounts may be deemed temporarily advisable.

TABLE 30.—Weighed Diabetic Diets (Weights in Grams).*

Approximate value.	Meals.	Fruit, 6-12%.	Vegetables, 3%.	Vegetables, 6-9%.	Vegetables, 20%.	Cereals 10%.	Bread.	Eggs.	Meat or fish.	Milk.	Cream, 20%.	Butter.	Clear broth, coffee, tea.
Carbohydrate 100 grams Protein 70 grams Fat 90 grams Calories 1500	Morning	100	As desired			100		2			50		As desired
	Noon	100		100					100			10	
	Evening	100			100				100			10	
	Bedtime						30			200			
Carbohydrate 125 grams Protein 80 grams Fat 100 grams Calories 1700	Morning	100	As desired			100	30	2			50	10	As desired
	Noon	100		100					100		25		
	Evening	100			100		30		100		25	10	
	Bedtime						30			200			
Carbohydrate 150 grams Protein 80 grams Fat 100 grams Calories 1800	Morning	100	As desired			100	30	1		200		10	As desired
	Noon	100		100			30		100		25	10	
	Evening	100			100		30		100		25	10	
	Bedtime						30			200			
Carbohydrate 175 grams Protein 80 grams Fat 100 grams Calories 1900	Morning	100	As desired			100	60	1		200		10	As desired
	Noon	100		100			30		100		25	10	
	Evening	100		100	100		30		100		25	10	
	Bedtime						30			200			
Carbohydrate 200 grams Protein 80 grams Fat 100 grams Calories 2000	Morning	100	As desired			200	60			200		10	As desired
	Noon	100		100			60		100		25	10	
	Evening	100		100	100		30		100		25	10	
	Bedtime						30			200			
Carbohydrate 225 grams Protein 80 grams Fat 110 grams Calories 2200	Morning	100	As desired			200	60			200		10	As desired
	Noon	100		100			60		100		25	10	
	Evening	100		100	100		60		100		25	10	
	Bedtime						60			200		10	
Carbohydrate 250 grams Protein 80 grams Fat 130 grams Calories 2500	Morning	200	As desired			200	60			200		20	As desired
	Noon	200		100			60		100			20	
	Evening	200		100	100		60		100		25	20	
	Bedtime						60			200		10	
Carbohydrate 300 grams Protein 90 grams Fat 140 grams Calories 2800	Morning	200	As desired			200	60			200		20	As desired
	Noon	200		100	100		60		100	200		20	
	Evening	200		100	100		60		100		25	20	
	Bedtime	200					60			200		10	

* As used in the New York Post-Graduate Hospital.

The writer has found from extensive comparison of diets in most cases an interchange of higher with lower carbohydrate may be made without appreciable change in the patient's diabetic condition, provided the diets interchanged are approximately of equal calories. This seems quite remarkable as the carbohydrate contents are decidedly different. From a therapeutic standpoint it occasionally seems desirable to interchange these or other diets, as by so doing the principles of pancreatic "stimulation" and "rest" are carried out.

TABLE 31.—Groups of Approximately Equivalent Foods Used in Diabetic Diets.

Breads.

Carbohydrate, approximately 15 grams.

Bread, graham, rye, white, whole wheat (small loaf)	1 slice
Graham Crackers	3 only
Saltines	6 only
Soda Biscuits	3 only
Uneda Biscuits	3 only

Cereals.

Carbohydrate, approximately 10 to 15 grams.

Cornmeal, cooked	4 tablespoons
Farina, cooked	4 tablespoons
Hominy, cooked	3 tablespoons
Oatmeal, cooked	4 tablespoons
Ralston, cooked	3 tablespoons
Wheatena, cooked	3 tablespoons
Bran or Wheat Flakes	4 tablespoons
Shredded Wheat	1 only

Potatoes and Potato Substitutes.

Carbohydrate, approximately 15 to 20 grams.

Corn, cooked	4 tablespoon
Lima beans, except dried, cooked	4 tablespoons
Macaroni, cooked	4 tablespoons
Noodles, cooked	4 tablespoons
Peas, except dried, cooked	4 tablespoons
Potato, cooked	1 medium
Rice, cooked	4 tablespoons
Spaghetti, cooked	4 tablespoons

Meat and Meat Substitutes.

Protein, approximately 20 grams; Fat, approximately 20 grams

Meat, Fish, Fowl	4 ounces
Eggs	2 only
Cheese, American (5-pound loaf)	2 slices
Cheese, Cottage	4 tablespoons
Cheese, Swiss (5-pound loaf)	2 slices

Dietary Management in Diabetes.

Dietary Management.—For the most satisfactory results the diet be arranged to fit into the patient's daily life. It is necessary

Butter and Butter Substitutes.

Fat, approximately 10 grams.

Butter	2 teaspoons
Heavy Cream (40 per cent)	2 tablespoons
Salad Oil	1 tablespoon
Macaroni	4 strips

Fruits and Fruit Juices.

Carbohydrate, approximately 6 to 12 per cent.

Lemons	Pears, Bartlett
Limes	Pineapple
Loganberries	Plums
Melons	Raspberries
Oranges	Strawberries
Peaches	Tangerines

Carbohydrate, approximately 12 to 18 per cent.

Figs, fresh	Nectarines
Grapes, Grape juice	Pomegranates

Carbohydrate, approximately 18 to 20 per cent.

Bananas

Vegetables.

Carbohydrate, approximately 3 per cent.

Cucumbers	Peppers, green
Endive	Radishes
Escarole	Romaine
Kale	Sauerkraut
Kohlrabi	Spinach
Leeks	Squash, summer
Lettuce	Tomatoes
Mustard greens	Tomato juice
Mushrooms	Turnip greens
Okra	Vegetable marrow
Parsley	Watercress

Carbohydrate, approximately 6 to 9 per cent.

Celeriac	Oyster-plant
Dandelion greens	Parsnips
Eggplant	Peas, canned
Onions	Turnips, yellow

Carbohydrate, approximately 15 to 20 per cent.

Corn	Potatoes
Peas, fresh	Yams

Foods of Negligible Caloric Value.

Bouillon	<i>Postum</i>	Mineral oil dressings
Broth, clear	<i>Sanka</i>	recipes for salad
Consommé	Tea	may be used, substituting
Coffee	Vinegar	eral oil for salad oil or
		ting sugar)

to know where and when meals are taken and what food is available. Consideration of the cost of the diet is of vital importance. For these reasons the dietary management of the diabetic must be individualized. The following arrangements of diets have been found practical in varied cases and may be used as a guide in planning individual diets. For greater convenience in planning diets, foods have been grouped as listed in Table 31. Necessary substitutions may be made by consulting these groupings of foods. For good nutrition, however, the patient should be encouraged to follow a dietary routine closely similar to those outlined.

In the diets which follow, the principles described in the foregoing discussion have been generally carried out. Table 30 gives a summary of eight diets with caloric values ranging from 1500 to 2000 which cover the requirements of the majority of patients. The protein values vary from 70 to 90 grams which also represent those frequently required. Carbohydrate values begin at 100 grams and reach a maximum of 300 grams in Diet No. 8. Amounts are given in grams and can be used as weighed diets in institutional practice. The greater liberality which can be employed in the treatment of diabetes at the present time, however, makes the use of food tables unnecessary and undesirable. Measured or even approximate amounts are sufficiently accurate to insure good control except in unusual cases. For home use the diets listed in Table 30 have been expressed as measured diets. Free choice of the lower carbohydrate food tables and certain food accessories has been allowed. Since protamine-zinc insulin is effective at least twenty-four hours, a small feeding before retiring serves to prevent the occurrence of hypoglycemia during the night. Such feedings are designated for time on the following diets.

Measured Diets.—These are arranged to correspond with the weighed diets shown in Table 30.

Diet No. 1.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 100 grams; Protein, 70 grams; Fat, 90 grams; Calories, 1500.

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit, in season:

Apple or orange or peach	1 medium
or grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
or blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	4 tablespoons
Cooked oatmeal or farina	4 tablespoons
Eggs, boiled or poached	2
Cream, light	4 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Diet No. 1.—(Continued.)

at or fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
etables (Group 1) cooked or raw:	
paragus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, mus- tard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro- maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress	As desired <i>Vinegar, lemon or min- eral oil dressing may be used with salads</i>
etables (Group 2) cooked or raw:	
ets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oysterplant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips	4 tablespoons
ter	2 teaspoons
it	As breakfast list
offee or tea	
at or fish (no gravy)	Medium serving
etables	As luncheon, Group 1
ato, baked or boiled	1 small
nashed	4 tablespoons
ter	2 teaspoons
it	As breakfast list
offee or tea	
me:	
lk	1 cup
ead:	
raham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
or Graham crackers	3

Sample Menu.

fast:	
medium-sized grapefruit	
tablespoons oatmeal	
tablespoons light cream	
oft-boiled eggs	
ffee	
heon:	
mato juice	
lice cold roast beef	
tablespoons beets with hot vinegar and	
teaspoons butter	
rge romaine and watercress salad with mineral oil French dressing	
tablespoons pineapple cubes	
a	
er:	
clery hearts and radishes	
uillon	
edium serving broiled filet of flounder	
mall baked potato with	
teaspoons butter	
rge portion spinach with sliced lemon	
edium-sized baked apple, with saccharine	
ffee	
ime:	
cup hot milk	
slice crisp whole wheat toast	

Diet No. 2.

Approximately -Carbohydrate, 125 grams; Protein, 80 grams;
Fat, 100 grams; Calories, 1700.

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit, in season:

Apple <i>or</i> orange <i>or</i> peach	1 medium
<i>or</i> grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
<i>or</i> blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	4 tablespoons
Cooked oatmeal <i>or</i> farina	4 tablespoons
Eggs, boiled or poached	2
Cream, light	4 tablespoons

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Coffee or tea	

Luncheon:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
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Vegetables (Group 1) cooked or raw:

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, must- tard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro- maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress	As desired <i>Vinegar, lemon or eral oil dressing be used with sal</i>
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Vegetables (Group 2) cooked or raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oyster-plant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips	4 tablespoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Dinner:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 1
Potato, baked <i>or</i> boiled	1 small
<i>or</i> mashed	4 tablespoons
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Bedtime:

Milk	1 cup
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
<i>or</i> Graham crackers	3

*Sample Menu.**Breakfast:*

Juice of $\frac{1}{2}$ medium-sized grapefruit
4 tablespoons farina
4 tablespoons light cream
2 poached eggs
1 slice Graham toast
2 teaspoons butter
Coffee

Diet No. 2.—(Continued.)*Sample Menu.*

on:
 led beef cake (4 ounces)
 al tomato with onion ring
 blespoons canned peas
 spoons butter
 blespoons raspberries (fresh or water-packed)
 blespoons light cream

r:
 tomato juice
 lium serving roast leg of lamb
 ge portion of string beans
 blespoons mashed potatoes
 tuce hearts with mineral oil French dressing
 ice bread
 aspoons butter
 medium-sized orange, sliced
 blespoons light cream
 rice
 mc:
 up milk
 raham crackers

Diet No. 3.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 150 grams; Protein, 80 grams;
 Fat, 100 grams; Calories, 1800.

Breakfast:

esh fruit, in season:

Apple <i>or</i> orange <i>or</i> peach	1 medium
<i>or</i> grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
<i>or</i> blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	4 tablespoons
ooked oatmeal <i>or</i> farina	4 tablespoons
egg, boiled <i>or</i> poached	1
ilk	1 cup

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat . . .	1 slice (small loaf)
butter	2 teaspoons

Coffee *or* tea

Luncheon:

eat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
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vegetables (Group 1) cooked *or* raw:

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, mus- tard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro- maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress	} As desired } <i>Vinegar, lemon or min- eral oil dressing may be used with salads</i>
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vegetables (Group 2) cooked *or* raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oyster-plant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips	4 tablespoons
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Dinner:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat . . .	1 slice (small loaf)
butter	2 teaspoons

Diet No. 3.—(Continued.)

Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Dinner:

Meat or fish (no gravy)	Medium serving
Vegetables	As luncheon, Gr
Potato, baked or boiled	1 small
or mashed	4 tablespoons
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Bedtime:

Milk	1 cup
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
or Graham crackers	3

*Sample Menu.**Breakfast:*

Juice of 1 medium-sized orange
 4 tablespoons farina
 1 cup milk
 1 soft boiled egg
 1 slice whole wheat toast
 2 teaspoons butter
 Coffee

Luncheon:

Clear beef broth
 Salad plate:
 ½ cup diced chicken mixed with diced celery and mineral oil mayonnaise
 4 tablespoons grated raw carrots flavored with onion juice, lettuce
 1 slice rye bread
 2 teaspoons butter
 Medium-sized baked apple, with saccharine
 2 tablespoons light cream
 Tea

Dinner:

Tomato juice
 Boiled salmon with lemon juice and chopped parsley
 Small boiled potato
 Large portion broccoli
 Cucumber and watercress salad with mineral oil French dressing
 1 slice bread
 2 teaspoons butter
 ½ medium-sized grapefruit
 2 tablespoons light cream
 Coffee

Bedtime:

1 cup milk
 3 Graham crackers

Diet No. 4.

Approximately — Carbohydrate, 175 grams; Protein, 80 grams;
Fat, 100 grams; Calories, 1900.

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit, in season:

Apple <i>or</i> orange <i>or</i> peach	1 medium
<i>or</i> grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
<i>or</i> blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	4 tablespoons
Cooked oatmeal <i>or</i> farina	4 tablespoons
Egg, boiled <i>or</i> poached	1
Milk	1 cup

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Coffee <i>or</i> tea	

Luncheon:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
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Vegetables (Group 1) cooked *or* raw:

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, mus- tard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro- maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress	As desired <i>Vinegar, lemon <i>or</i> min- eral oil dressing may be used with salads</i>
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Vegetables (Group 2) cooked *or* raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oyster-plant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips	4 tablespoons
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Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee <i>or</i> tea	

Dinner:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 1
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 2
Potato, baked <i>or</i> boiled	1 small
<i>or</i> mashed	4 tablespoons

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	1 slice (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee <i>or</i> tea	

Dessert:

Milk	1 cup
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Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat <i>or</i>	1 slice (small loaf)
Graham crackers <i>or</i> soda biscuits	3

Diet No. 4.—(Continued.)*Sample Menu.**Breakfast:*

Juice of $\frac{1}{2}$ medium-sized grapefruit
 4 tablespoons oatmeal
 1 cup milk
 1 poached egg
 2 slices toast
 2 teaspoons butter
 Coffee

Luncheon:

Bouillon
 Baked green pepper stuffed with 4 tablespoons minced ham
 4 tablespoons canned peas
 Mixed lettuce and watercress salad with mineral oil French dressing
 1 slice whole wheat bread
 2 teaspoons butter
 4 tablespoons orange sections and apple cubes
 2 tablespoons light cream
 Tea

Dinner:

Celery hearts and radishes
 1 slice roast beef
 1 small baked potato
 4 tablespoons carrots
 1 slice graham bread
 2 teaspoons butter
 4 tablespoons strawberries (fresh or water-packed)
 2 tablespoons light cream
 Coffee

Bedtime:

1 cup milk or buttermilk
 6 saltines

Diet No. 5.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 200 grams; Protein, 80 grams;
 Fat, 100 grams; Calories, 2000.

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit, in season:

Apple <i>or</i> orange <i>or</i> peach	1 medium
<i>or</i> grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
<i>or</i> blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	4 tablespoons
Cooked oatmeal <i>or</i> farina	8 tablespoons
Milk	1 cup

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Coffee or tea	

Luncheon:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
<i>or</i> eggs	2

Diet No. 5.—(Continued.)

Luncheon:

Vegetables (Group 1) cooked or raw:

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, mustard greens, green peppers, radishes, romaine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress

As desired

Vinegar, lemon or mineral oil dressing may be used with salads

Vegetables (Group 2) cooked or raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oysterplant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips

4 tablespoons

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat

2 slices (small loaf)

Butter

2 teaspoons

Fruit

As breakfast list

Cream, light

2 tablespoons

Coffee or tea

Dinner:

Meat or fish

Medium serving

Vegetables

As luncheon, Group 1

Vegetables

As luncheon, Group 2

Potato, baked or boiled

1 small

Potato, mashed

4 tablespoons

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat

1 slice (small loaf)

Butter

2 teaspoons

Fruit

As breakfast list

Cream, light

2 tablespoons

Coffee or tea

Breakfast:

Milk

1 cup

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat

1 slice (small loaf)

or crackers

3

Sample Menu.

Breakfast:

1 medium-sized peach, sliced

2 tablespoons oatmeal

1 cup milk

2 slices whole wheat toast

2 teaspoons butter

1 cup coffee

Luncheon:

1 slice baked ham

2 tablespoons steamed oysterplant

1 large salad of shredded raw cabbage and green peppers with mineral oil

dressing

2 slices rye bread

2 teaspoons butter

2 tablespoons honeydew melon cubes with 1 tablespoon fresh lime juice

2 tablespoons light cream

Tea

Diet No. 5.—(Continued.)*Sample Menu.**Dinner:*

Bouillon
 2 broiled lamb chops
 4 tablespoons mashed potato
 4 tablespoons canned peas
 Sliced tomato and romaine salad with mineral oil dressing
 1 slice graham bread
 2 teaspoons butter
 4 tablespoons raspberries
 2 tablespoons light cream
 Coffee

Bedtime:

1 cup milk
 6 saltines

Diet No. 6.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 225 grams; Protein, 80 grams;
 Fat, 110 grams; Calories, 2200.

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit, in season:

Apple <i>or</i> orange <i>or</i> peach	1 medium
<i>or</i> grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
<i>or</i> blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	4 tablespoons

Cooked oatmeal <i>or</i> farina	8 tablespoons
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Milk	1 cup
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Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat . . .	2 slices (small loaf)
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Butter	2 teaspoons
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Coffee or tea

Luncheon:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
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<i>or</i> eggs	2
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Vegetables (Group 1) cooked or raw:

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli,
 cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage,
 chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole,
 kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, mus-
 tard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro-
 maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash,
 tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens,
 watercress

As desired

Vinegar, lemon or m-
 eral oil dressing
 be used with salad

Vegetables (Group 2) cooked or raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant,
 onions, oyster-plant, canned peas, parsnips,
 squash, yellow turnips

4 tablespoons

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat . . .	2 slices (small loaf)
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Butter	2 teaspoons
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Fruit	As breakfast list
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Cream, light	2 tablespoons
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Coffee or tea

Diet No. 6.—(Continued.)

Meat or fish (no gravy)	Medium serving
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 1
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 2
Potato, baked or boiled	1 small
Potato, mashed	4 tablespoons
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	
Time:	
Milk	1 cup
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons

Sample Menu.

Breakfast:	
Juice of $\frac{1}{2}$ medium-sized grapefruit	
2 tablespoons farina	
1 cup milk	
2 slices cracked wheat toast	
2 teaspoons butter	
Coffee	
Luncheon:	
2-egg omelette with sauce of stewed tomatoes	
1 small baked potato	
2 tablespoons canned peas	
1 large salad of celery cabbage with mineral oil dressing	
2 slices Graham bread	
2 teaspoons butter	
1 medium-sized orange, sliced	
2 tablespoons light cream	
Tea	
Dinner:	
1 small broiled chicken	
1 small boiled potato	
2 tablespoons sliced beets	
1 Asparagus and lettuce salad with mineral oil dressing	
2 slices bread	
2 teaspoons butter	
1 medium-sized baked apple	
2 tablespoons light cream	
Coffee	
Time:	
1 cup milk	
6 graham crackers	
2 teaspoons butter	

Diet No. 7.

Approximately —Carbohydrate, 250 grams; Protein, 90 grams;
Fat, 130 grams; Calories, 2500.

Breakfast:	
Fresh fruit, in season:	
Apples or oranges or peaches	2 medium

Diet No. 7.—(Continued.)

<i>or</i> grapefruit	1 medium
<i>or</i> blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	8 tablespoons
Cooked oatmeal <i>or</i> farina	8 tablespoons
Milk	1 cup
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	4 teaspoons
Coffee or tea	

Luncheon:

Meat <i>or</i> fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
<i>or</i> eggs	2
Vegetables (Group 1) cooked <i>or</i> raw:	
Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, must- ard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro- maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress	As desired <i>Vinegar, lemon or eral oil dressing be used with salt</i>

Vegetables (Group 2) cooked *or* raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oyster-plant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips	4 tablespoons
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	4 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Coffee or tea	

Dinner:

Meat <i>or</i> fish	Medium serving
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 1
Vegetables	As luncheon, Group 2
Potato, baked <i>or</i> boiled	1 small
<i>or</i> mashed	4 tablespoons
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	4 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Bedtime:

Milk	1 cup
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	2 teaspoons

Sample Menu.**Breakfast:**

Juice of 2 medium-sized oranges
8 tablespoons oatmeal
1 cup milk
2 slices whole wheat toast
4 teaspoons butter
Coffee

Diet No. 7.—(Continued)*Sample Menu.*

1 plate: $\frac{1}{2}$ cup tuna fish with diced celery and mineral oil mayonnaise
 1 lettuce and 4 tablespoons cold sliced beets in vinegar
 2 slices graham bread
 2 tablespoons butter
 2 tablespoons pineapple cubes
 1 with lemon
 1
 1 very hearts with radishes
 1 slice roast beef
 2 tablespoons mashed potatoes
 2 tablespoons hubbard squash
 2 slices rye bread
 2 tablespoons butter
 1 medium-sized grapefruit, sectioned
 2 tablespoons light cream
 1 coffee
 1
 1 cup milk
 2 slices whole wheat toast
 2 tablespoons butter

Diet No. 8.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 300 grams; Protein, 90 grams;
 Fat, 140 grams; Calories, 2800.

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit, in season:

Apples or oranges or peaches	2 medium
or grapefruit	1 medium
or blackberries, melon cubes, pineapple cubes, raspberries, strawberries	8 tablespoons
or banana	1 medium
Cooked oatmeal or farina	8 tablespoons
Milk	1 cup
Bread:	
Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	4 teaspoons
Coffee or tea	

Luncheon:

Meat or fish (no gravy)	Medium serving (4 ounces)
Eggs	2

Vegetables (Group 1) cooked or raw:

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, lettuce, mushrooms, must- tard greens, green peppers, radishes, ro- maine, sauerkraut, spinach, summer squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnip greens, watercress	} As desired Vinegar, lemon or min- eral oil dressing may be used with salads
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Dinner:

Vegetables (Group 2) cooked or raw:

Beets, Brussels sprouts, carrots, eggplant, onions, oysterplant, canned peas, parsnips, squash, yellow turnips	4 tablespoons
Potato, baked or boiled	1 small
mashed	4 tablespoons

Diet No. 8.—(Continued.)**Bread:**

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	4 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Milk	1 cup

Dinner:

Meat or fish	Medium serving
Vegetables	As luncheon, Gro
Vegetables	As luncheon, Gro
Potato, baked or boiled	1 small
or mashed	4 tablespoons

Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Butter	4 teaspoons
Fruit	As breakfast list
Cream, light	2 tablespoons
Coffee or tea	

Bedtime:

Milk	1 cup
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Bread:

Graham, rye, white, whole wheat	2 slices (small loaf)
Fruit	As breakfast list

Sample Menu.**Breakfast:**

- 1 medium-sized banana, sliced
- 8 tablespoons oatmeal
- 1 cup milk
- 2 slices graham toast
- 4 teaspoons butter
- Coffee

Luncheon:

- 2 poached eggs on a large portion of chopped spinach
- 4 tablespoons canned peas
- 1 small baked potato
- 2 slices bread
- 4 teaspoons butter
- 2 medium-sized stewed apples (with saccharine and nutmeg)
- 1 cup milk

Dinner:

- 2 medium-sized veal chops, baked
- 4 tablespoons mashed potatoes
- Large portion string beans
- 4 tablespoons grated raw carrot on lettuce with mineral oil dressing
- 2 slices whole wheat bread
- 4 teaspoons butter
- 2 medium-sized oranges, sectioned
- 2 tablespoons light cream
- Coffee

Bedtime:

- 1 cup milk
- Bread and butter sandwich:
 - 2 slices rye bread
 - 2 teaspoons butter
- 1 medium-sized grapefruit, sectioned

Adjustable Diabetic Diets.—Diets outlined in detail, as the foregoing, are important for the guidance and discipline of the average

Dietary Outline.

Allowed Daily:

Milk_____

Eggs_____

Meat, Fish, Cheese_____

Butter_____

Cream_____

Bread_____

Cereal_____

Fruit_____

Apples, apricots (fresh), avocados, blackberries, grapefruit, lemons, limes, loganberries, melons, oranges, peaches, bartlett pears, pineapple, plums, raspberries, strawberries, tangerines, watermelon.

Potato_____

Vegetables_____

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, dandelion greens, eggplant, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, leeks, lettuce, mustard greens, mushrooms, onions, okra, oyster-plant, parsnips, green peppers, radishes, romaine, sauerkraut, spinach, squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnips, turnip greens, watercress.

Beverage_____

Suggested Arrangement of Meals.

<i>Breakfast:</i>	<i>Lunch:</i>	<i>Dinner:</i>	<i>Bedtime:</i>
Fruit	Meat, fish or cheese	Meat or fish	Milk
Cereal	One raw vegetable	Potato	
Eggs	One cooked vegetable	One raw vegetable	
Bread	Bread	One cooked vegetable	
Beverage	Fruit	Bread	
Cream	Milk	Fruit	
		Beverage	

Instructions_____

Sample Dietary Outline.**Foods Allowed Daily:**

Milk _____ *one pint*

Eggs _____ *one or two*

Meat, Fish, Cheese _____ *two portions*

Butter _____ *with bread and vegetables*

Cream _____ *with beverages*

Bread _____ *two slices, preferably whole wheat*

Cereal *four tablespoons cooked oatmeal or farina or one shredded wheat biscuit*

Fruit _____ *three portions*

Apples, apricots (fresh), avocados, blackberries, grapefruit, lemons, limes, loganberries, melons, oranges, peaches, bartlett pears, pineapple, plums, raspberries, strawberries, tangerines, watermelon.

Potato _____ *one medium size*

Vegetables *as desired, preferably one raw and one cooked at each meal*

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, dandelion greens, eggplant, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, leeks, lettuce, mustard greens, mushrooms, onions, okra, oyster-plant, parsnips, green peppers, radishes, romaine, sauerkraut, spinach, squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnips, turnip greens, watercress.

Beverage _____ *coffee and tea as desired*

Suggested Arrangement of Meals.

<i>Breakfast:</i>	<i>Luncheon:</i>	<i>Dinner;</i>	<i>Bedtime</i>
Fruit	Meat, fish or cheese	Meat or fish	Milk
Cereal	2 Raw vegetable	Potato	
Egg	Bread	2 Cooked vegetable	
Bread	Fruit	Fruit	
Beverage	Milk	Beverage	
Cream			

Instructions _____

(The approximate calculation of this diet is: Carbohydrate, 100 grams
Protein, 70 grams; Fat, 100 grams; Calories, 1600.)

ic patient. However, many intelligent patients with mild es may be trusted with diets which allow more freedom in the ion of meals but confine the amounts of carbohydrate within n range. The following outline can be used when there is nce that the patient understands the principles of a normal . Unfortunately this understanding is not as general as it . Many diabetic patients, particularly the elderly, have been of overindulgence in food or the selection of a few foods r than a variety. Consequently it is difficult for them to stand what is meant by a normal diet or an average portion. an intelligent patient may come to some strange conclusions diet is not explained in detail. The general principle of the ing outline is that the amounts of the high-carbohydrate foods pecified and restricted. Other foods are listed and suggestions for their use. Thus an individual diet can be written quickly. e form employed for adjustable diabetic diets is shown on 337. Its use is illustrated on page 338 with a diet which ap- mates 1600 Calories distributed among 100 grams of carbo- ate, 70 grams of protein and 100 grams of fat. It may suffice ave the "Suggested Arrangement of Meals" unaltered and let patient vary the outline as necessity requires. In the beginning, ver, it is desirable to help the patient plan the schedule until system is thoroughly comprehended. It may, for example, be ical for the patient to obtain a generous salad at midday but at night in which case the form is corrected to indicate 2 raw tables for lunch and 2 cooked ones for dinner. Since only es of bread are allowed daily, it is suggested that none be taken ight so that a whole slice may be permitted with the luncheon l.

here greater freedom can be permitted, the dietary outline n below is often satisfactory. If at all practicable the dietary dule should avoid an exacting routine. A sense of freedom is cularly important in those individuals who inwardly resent nentation of their existence. The detrimental psychologic ts of day in and day out restriction should not be allowed to mulate but should be foreseen by the physician and dissipated re harm is done.

Carbohydrate-adjustable Diets With Free Selection of Proteins and

— In the writer's experience many patients do well when only carbohydrates are confined within certain limits and free selec- of proteins and fats is permitted. The following outline has prepared for such patients:

Dietary Outline.

Allowed Daily:

Meat, Fish, Eggs, Milk, Cheese: may be taken as desired. Sauces, gravies and dressings are excluded.

Butter: with bread and vegetables.

Dietary Outline.—(*Continued*)

Cream: with beverages.

Oil: in salad dressings.

Fruit_____ *designate amount for individual diet*_____

Apples, apricots (fresh), avocados, blackberries, grapefruit, lemons, limes, loganberries, melons, oranges, peaches, bartlett pears, pineapple, plums, raspberries, strawberries, tangerines, watermelon.

Vegetables *as desired, preferably one raw and one cooked at each meal*_____

Asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chard, chicory, cucumbers, dandelion greens, eggplant, endive, escarole, kale, kohlrabi, leeks, lettuce, mustard greens, mushrooms, onions, okra, oyster-plant, parsnips, green peppers, radishes, romaine, sauerkraut, spinach, squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnips, turnip greens, watercress.

Potatoes_____ *designate amount for individual diet*_____

Bread_____ “ _____

Cereal_____ “ _____

Beverage_____ *coffee and tea as desired*_____

Diets of Modified Consistency.—In cases of gastro-intestinal turbance and in periods following surgery it may be necessary reduce the residue of the diet. The diets which follow are examples of adaptations to fluid and low-residue forms.

Fluid Diet.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 100 grams; Protein, 70 grams; Fat, 90 grams; Calories, 1500.

Foods Allowed for a Twenty-four-hour Period:

Milk	1½ quarts
Eggs	4
Cream, light	½ cup
Fruit juice: orange, lemon, grapefruit, pineapple	1 cup
Cereal (strained): oatmeal, farina	4 tablespoons
Broth, tomato juice, coffee, tea, as desired	

Sample Menu.

Breakfast:

Gruel:

4 tablespoons strained oatmeal

1 cup hot milk

Coffee with 2 tablespoons cream, light

Fluid Diet.—(Continued.)*morning:*

1/2 cup grapefruit juice with 1 egg, well beaten

*luncheon:*1/2 cup soup:
2 tablespoons puréed spinach
1/2 cup hot milk and 2 tablespoons cream, light
seasoning*afternoon:*1/2 cup milk shake:
1/2 cup milk
1 egg
2 tablespoons cream, light
coffee to flavor*evening:*1/2 cup soup:
2 tablespoons puréed tomato
1/2 cup hot milk and 2 tablespoons cream, light
seasoning*bedtime:*1/2 cup egg nog:
2 eggs
1/2 cups milk
salt, vanilla, nutmeg

The carbohydrate value of this diet may be raised by the addition of fruit juices, cereal gruels, and the use of 20 per cent vegetables in cream soups.

Low-residue Diet.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 100 grams; Protein, 70 grams;
Fat, 90 grams; Calories, 1500.

*Sample Menu.**breakfast:*1/2 cup orange juice, strained
2 tablespoons oatmeal, strained
2 tablespoons cream, light
1 soft-boiled egg
coffee*luncheon:*1/2 cup soup with 1 egg, well-beaten
dinner:
2 tablespoons chicken, minced
2 tablespoons carrots, puréed
2 tablespoons butter
2 tablespoons apple sauce
tea or coffee*afternoon:*

1/2 cup tomato juice, hot or cold

*supper:*2 tablespoons fish, flaked
2 tablespoons string beans, puréed
2 tablespoons butter
1/2 cup pineapple juice (may be jellied)
coffee or tea*bedtime:*1/2 cup milk toast:
1 cup hot milk
1 slice white bread, toasted

Low-residue Diet.

Approximately—Carbohydrate, 200 grams; Protein, 80 grams;
Fat, 100 grams; Calories, 2000.

*Sample Menu.**Breakfast:*

- $\frac{1}{2}$ cup grapefruit juice, strained
- 4 tablespoons farina
- 1 cup milk
- 1 slice white bread, toasted
- 2 teaspoons butter
- Coffee

Midmorning:

- Broth
- 1 slice white bread, toasted

Luncheon:

- 2 poached eggs on spinach, puréed
- 4 tablespoons beets, puréed
- 2 teaspoons butter
- 2 slices white bread
- 4 tablespoons stewed puréed apple, peach or pear
- 2 tablespoons cream, light
- Tea or coffee

Midafternoon:

- Tea with lemon

Dinner:

- 4 tablespoons beef, minced, moistened with broth
- 4 tablespoons mashed potato
- 4 tablespoons carrots, puréed
- 1 slice white bread
- 2 teaspoons butter
- 4 tablespoons stewed puréed apple, peach or pear
- 2 tablespoons cream, light
- Coffee or tea

Bedtime:

- 1 cup milk, hot or cold
- 1 slice white bread, toasted

Antiketogenic Diets.—In diabetic acidosis, fixed organic acids have deprived the blood and tissues of their normal amount alkali reserve. The blood bicarbonate constitutes its alkali reserve and is the “first line of defense” against fixed acids. Considerable amounts of acids may also be buffered by the plasma proteins and the amino-acids. An unchecked production of abnormal acids will eventually deplete body alkali to the point where coma supervenes and death ensues. “Acetone bodies” or the “ketones” are substances responsible for diabetic coma. These are acetone, acetoacetic acid (diacetic acid) and beta-hydroxybutyric acid. Acetone is a volatile substance but the last two are fixed acids and are the chiefly responsible for the acidosis. Much of the acetone is excreted through the lungs and gives rise to the characteristic “acetone breath” of acidosis.

These acid bodies are excreted chiefly in the urine so that a diagnosis of diabetic acidosis can be readily established or disproved by the ordinary urine tests. The degree of acidosis is determined from both the clinical picture and the carbon dioxide combining power of the blood plasma. Estimation of the carbon dioxide combining power has been, for years, the standard procedure as a guide to

quent of diabetic acidosis. The method of Van Slyke is used almost universally to determine carbon dioxide combining-power and that is necessary for clinical purposes. Results are expressed in volumes per cent or the cubic centimeters of carbon dioxide liberated from 100 cc. of blood plasma. The normal values range from 40 to 50. Values between 40 and 50 indicate a mild degree of acidosis; between 30 and 40, a moderately severe degree; between 20 and 30, a severe degree, and under 20 a very severe degree. Clinically, the patient becomes comatose when the carbon dioxide combining-power is in the neighborhood of 30, but at this point can usually be aroused. At 20 the coma is usually profound and the usual manifestations such as Kussmaul breathing, dehydration, a thready pulse, low blood-pressure and vomiting are usually present. These low values represent a deficiency of base for combining with carbon dioxide to form sodium bicarbonate.

In the treatment of acidosis there are two main desiderata: (a) to eliminate the acetone bodies, and (b) to prevent their recurrence. Their oxidation can readily be brought about by the injection of sufficient amounts of insulin and the ingestion or intravenous administration of sugar. The patient should be removed to a hospital, if possible, as the constant use of the laboratory is essential until signs of acidosis are over. Twenty-four hours are usually sufficient for this purpose. The steps to be taken in overcoming this complication of diabetes follow in brief:

The patient should be put to bed and kept warm by the use of blankets and hot-water bottles. The stomach should be lavaged with a warm weak solution of sodium bicarbonate and a high cleansing enema administered. Urine should be collected immediately every hour thereafter. A 10 per cent solution of pure sterile glucose should be prepared at once for use in future emergency. (A 5 per cent sterile glucose in ampoule form is available at most drug stores.) Insulin therapy should be started at the earliest possible moment after the patient is first seen and the diagnosis no longer in doubt. Forty units of protamine-zinc insulin plus 40 units of unmodified insulin may be given initially, followed by regular insulin in dosage of 20 or more units every hour, so long as sugar and acetone appear in the urine. Care must be taken to avoid the serious condition of hypoglycemia. Frequent examination of the urine for sugar and acetone and of the blood for sugar and CO_2 combining power will be necessary to guide in the details of procedure. Sugar may be given in the form of orange juice or in simple solution in sufficient amounts to insure a slight glycosuria and hyperglycemia until the acetone bodies have entirely disappeared. It will be noted by this time that the carbon dioxide combining-power, at first very low, has gradually increased to a level which, if not entirely normal, is at least above the danger zone. When the acetone bodies first disappear, the carbon dioxide combining-power is frequently between 40 and 50.

The fluids should be forced to combat the dehydration and consequent failure of circulation. Since the discovery of insulin it is rarely

essential to give sodium bicarbonate, though it is sometimes employed to hold water in the tissues. Sodium chloride is probably as good for this purpose. In case of persistent vomiting, intravenous infusions should be relied upon to force fluids and administer necessary quantity of glucose. An early gastric lavage will do much, however, to prevent future vomiting. It is not necessary to give solid food the first day. On the second day such food should usually be given.

Since the acetone bodies are derived principally from fat, it is essential at first to avoid their use. A moderate amount of protein can usually be given with safety since the protein molecule in the final analysis is preponderantly antiketogenic. A diet fulfilling these conditions follows. It is low in caloric value and intended for use only for about the first twenty-four hours after the acid has been eliminated. Thereafter a more complete diet should be substituted.

Antiketogenic Diet.

Carbohydrate—100 g. *Protein*—65 g. *Fat*—5 g. *Calories*—

Breakfast:

Oatmeal or farina, 100 g.

Skim milk, 200 g.

Fruit or fruit juice (6 per cent carbohydrate), 200 g.

Luncheon:

Vegetables (3 per cent carbohydrate), 100 g.

Vegetables (20 per cent carbohydrate), 100 g.

Fish (2 per cent fat), 100 g.

Skim milk, 100 g.

Dinner:

Vegetables (20 per cent carbohydrate), 100 g.

Fish (2 per cent fat), 75 g.

Skim milk, 200 g.

Cooked, unsweetened, fruit flavored gelatin or D-Zerta, 80 g.

Obesity (Prophylactic) Diets.—Reference should be made to the section on Obesity for diets suitable for those who are overweight and apt to develop diabetes.

Practical Suggestions.

1. "**Standardizing**" the Patient.—This expression has come to mean the regulation of the patient's food intake and insulin dose to effect a proper balance between the two. This must still be done by the "trial and error" method. Except in acidosis, it is seldom necessary to hospitalize the patient for this purpose. It has become the practice of the writer at the beginning to venture a moderate carbohydrate diet of about 1800 calories such as has been described as Diet No. 3, measured. In the average case a trial dose of 20 units of protamine-zinc insulin is then prescribed to be taken once daily before breakfast. The patient's urine is next collected at different

ervals for the first few days and analyzed for sugar and acetone. As the patient progresses the diet is adjusted according to the urine and blood sugar levels and later according to weight response and caloric requirement. Insulin is adjusted likewise in accordance with the needs as evidenced by the urine tests and the blood sugar. After the first two weeks the condition is usually so well in hand that vigilance may be relaxed and the intervals of the patient's visits lengthened.

2. **Use of Insulin.**—Most patients probably do better on insulin, although only small doses are required. Protamine-zinc insulin has many advantages and is to be preferred unless undue severity makes the use of supplementary doses of regular insulin necessary. In the writer's experience, it is sufficient in the great majority of cases. Insulin is known to have two effects upon sugars in the body: it increases the oxidation of glucose and increases the glycogen storage. It also prevents the formation of excess sugars from other substances. It must be given hypodermically, as oral administration is without effect. The degree of reduction of blood sugar per unit varies with the individual, and with the dose. In general, smaller doses produce greater effect per unit than larger doses. In prescribing, it is always safe to calculate that 1 unit should be sufficient to cause the disappearance of 4 grams of urinary sugar, which is about the maximum.

The patient should be taught the symptoms of shock and be instructed in their early recognition and treatment. Orange juice and sugar will cause prompt cessation of symptoms. If the patient is certain as to when a meal will be served (*e. g.*, banquet, etc.) insulin should be given immediately after the meal. In case of vomiting, as in acidosis, it sometimes becomes necessary for the physician to administer glucose intravenously or by hypodermoclysis.

It should always be remembered that infections inhibit the effect of insulin. This tends to produce acidosis and coma. With an abscess, several times the amount of insulin may be required as at other times to keep the patient sugar-free and avoid hyperglycemia. Upon drainage of the abscess the former condition may be promptly restored. The patient should always be informed of the danger of any infection and advised to report for observation immediately at the event of such a development.

Special syringes graduated in units are available for insulin users, and are much more convenient and less liable to result in error. They should be rinsed and sterilized in distilled water or alcohol. A fresh area should be selected for each injection and injections should be made usually fifteen to thirty minutes before a meal, although in certain cases a dose between meals, as at 3 or 4 P.M., may be advisable when using regular insulin. Protamine-zinc insulin is usually given about one-half hour before breakfast in a single dose for the twenty-four-hour period. This substance liberates insulin slowly and gradually over a longer period and thus produces a more uniform blood sugar level. Sometimes, however, it must be supplemented by crystalline or regular insulin.

3. **Medicines Containing Sugar.**—Large amounts of sugar in certain medicines are sometimes overlooked by the practitioner. Cough syrups, petrolatum compounds, etc., frequently contain sufficient amounts to unbalance entirely the patient's metabolism if taken in ordinary quantities. The sugar coating of a tablet is negligible, but the quantity of syrup in the usual dose of citrate of magnesium or compound licorice powder can be definitely deleterious.

4. **Should Patients Test Their Own Urine for Sugar?**—Some specialists of high standing answer this question affirmatively, others negatively. The writer has seen excellent results either way. Some patients manage their own cases efficiently over a long time without the aid of the doctor. Therein lies the danger, however, that the patient will become too independent and finally get into serious trouble. In most cases it would seem better to have the patients report occasionally for observation and adjustment and have them forget the urine in the interim between visits. Too frequent alterations of diet and insulin dosage, as so often happens in the cases of those who have home laboratories, are not conducive to the best results. There are exceptions to this rule, nevertheless, where self-testing seems both necessary and desirable.

5. **Nervous Factors in Diabetes.**—All practitioners with experience in diabetes have seen the marked exacerbation that follows emotional strain such as apprehension, anxiety, fear or grief. An attempt to ameliorate such a mental state will have a most salutary effect upon the diabetes. Mild sedatives in small doses are occasionally helpful. Whether from emotional disturbance or other reason the juvenile diabetic is notoriously prone to mercurial fluctuations in blood sugar. For this reason, it sometimes becomes necessary to permit occasional glycosuria in order to guard against the more dangerous hypoglycemia.

6. **Care of the Feet.**—Joslin has long emphasized scrupulous cleanliness on the part of the diabetic with special reference to the feet to prevent infection of the skin. The great susceptibility of the diabetic to infection is well known. Joslin claims a much smaller incidence of infected feet in the Boston area since inaugurating his campaign of cleanliness for diabetics.

7. **Alcohol.**—Alcohol formerly formed a part of the regular therapy of diabetes. It is oxidized with the production of heat and energy. Although not in any sense essential to successful treatment, the occasional use of small quantities in the form of non-sweetened beverages (most distilled liquors) may be permitted.

DIARRHEA

JEROME MARKS, M.D.

It is well-recognized that diarrhea is not a clinical entity but only a symptom of some underlying disease. Often, the determination and the treatment of the basic pathology is a matter of considerable time and therefore as a practical consideration the prompt, symptomatic control of diarrhea is usually called for.

The dietetic management in *acute* diarrhea due to food poisons and irritants is handled in much the same manner as "ptomaine poisoning". It is generally recommended that treatment begin with a strong purge; however, this should be used only in the earlier stages of an acute enteritis to rid the body of the offending material. When the diarrhea has been profuse and has lasted for some time prior to the commencement of treatment, further purgation is hardly necessary. Rather it is better to sooth the irritated bowel. For this purpose belladonna (tincture or extract) is to be preferred to opium. The latter drug unduly quiets peristaltic activity, may mask symptoms, and in an occasional case if continued too long it may be the commencement of an addiction. However, opium must occasionally be used, although caution is needed in its exhibition. Along with belladonna, calcium carbonate and/or kaolin in its pure state, as one of the numerous proprietary forms, should be employed as adsorbant and protective.

The dietary management proper considers the following factors:

Fluids: Due to depletion of body fluid by the continued bowel movements, insistence upon large amounts of water, or if preferred, weak sweetened tea is indicated. If, as often happens, there is an associated gastritis and vomiting, fluids may have to be administered parenterally in which case saline solution (to replace chlorides lost in the vomitus) as well as glucose should be used.

Food: For the first twenty-four hours no food need be given provided the fluid loss is corrected. On the second day a diet chosen from toast, strained cooked cereal (oatmeal, farina, cream of wheat), chicken or beef bouillon and jello may be instituted. These are best administered in small feedings every two hours, since large amounts of food may stimulate peristaltic rushes and aggravate the diarrhea. On subsequent days lean meat, soft boiled eggs, potatoes, rice, nodules or spaghetti with butter, and simple puddings (tapioca, bread, rice), may be gradually added. Since the average case of acute diarrhea is of brief duration no further dietary management is indicated.

The management of the *chronic* diarrheas resolves itself primarily to accurate diagnosis. This will include a detailed gastrointestinal survey involving the stomach (achylia), small intestines, (sprue, celiac, etc.), and the colon (dysenteries, chronic colitis, etc.). In addition, the pancreas, the endocrine system (hyperthyroidism, Addison's disease), and the chest (tuberculous enteritis) must also be studied. All of these diarrheas must be treated with a diet low in roughage and in bowel stimulating food. In short a *strict* bland diet is to be followed. This in turn must be adjusted to meet any specific dietary indication which may be present, as for instance in the case, the diarrheas of the deficiency states (pellagra, etc.) and the diarrheas associated with diabetes, nephritis and allergy. The standard bland diet will be found on page 391. From this it will be wise to eliminate the fruit and vegetable juices, the stewed fruits and at the commencement even the pureed vegetables. These may be cautiously added later and their effect on bowel activity noted.

Despite most detailed investigation the etiology of many of chronic diarrhea will not be determined. Such cases, which be classified either as "functional" or "idiopathic" will also need the strict bland diet as outlined above.

It will be noted that this diet is lacking in vitamins B and C. Since the former is not stored by the body in sufficient quantity to protect against prolonged deprivation it is important to introduce it as early as possible; doses three to four times the optimal requirements are called for, and since absorption from the gastrointestinal tract is uncertain in diarrhea parenteral administration is advised whenever possible. In passing, it may be of interest to note that vitamin B deficiency itself (folic acid nicotinic acid), may be a cause of chronic diarrhea and thus a double indication for adequate diet is called for.

Vitamin C is also lacking in the bland diet and until sufficient fruit juices are tolerated should be added as ascorbic acid.

Finally a word about protein. While the bland diets are usually balanced with respect to this substance, the amount absorbed in any given case of diarrhea is questionable. In addition to not absorbing protein the body may actually be losing it in the form of hemorrhage and exudate in those conditions associated with ulceration. It is therefore of the greatest importance that the protein requirements of the patient be carefully determined and an attempt made to estimate the amount of ingested protein lost in the stool. It is only with these two factors in mind that adequate provision will be made to secure the patient in nitrogen balance.

DIARRHEA IN INFANTS AND CHILDREN

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Diarrhea is a common symptom of illness in infants and children. The frequency with which it occurs and the mortality resulting from it have steadily decreased in the past few decades with increasing knowledge of etiology and therapy plus improved methods of sanitation and proper construction of formulas. Diarrhea is so frequently encountered, however, and in certain forms, as epidemic diarrhea of the newborn, the mortality remains high, approximately 40 per cent in several series of cases. Since it is only a symptom, diarrhea may be provoked by a number of causes. The severity and duration vary with the cause, the method of treatment, and the preceding condition of the infant. In general, the younger the infant the more serious is the prognosis.

Etiology. A number of pathogenic and saprophytic bacteria are known to cause diarrhea, as well as many viruses and toxic irritant substances in the gastro-intestinal tract. A high proportion of cases result from contamination of food or water with bacteria, viruses, or bacterial toxins, as well as direct passage of contagious organisms from other infected patients. Diarrhea may also occur as a symptom of acute appendicitis. Infections outside of the gastrointestinal tract (parenteral infections) rarely cause diarrhea if the

ke of food is reduced at the onset of the infection (See Acute infections). Seasonal variation is noted, most cases of diarrhea occurring in the summer and fall months, particularly when the temperature and humidity are high. These atmospheric conditions probably reduce the tolerance of the infant for food and increase the tendency of diarrhea when ordinary amounts of food are fed to infants. Metabolic disturbances may be accompanied by diarrhea, celiac disease, heavy metal poisoning, and food allergies, particularly allergy to egg, milk, or wheat. Prolonged starvation occasionally produces diarrhea in infants.

Pathology. Examination of the gastro-intestinal tract reveals no abnormalities except in specific enteric infections, such as shigellosis, typhoid fever, bacterial or amoebic dysentery and chronic ulcerative colitis.

Symptoms. Diarrhea may be mild, moderate, or severe, varying from passage of a few mushy or loose stools daily to almost continuous passage of voluminous watery stools. Color of the stool varies and may be green, yellow, brown, or colorless. Flecks of blood are frequently noted in the stool when the diarrhea is moderately severe. Large amounts of blood and pus are seen in the stool of patients with bacillary dysentery. Vomiting, abdominal distention, and abdominal cramps often accompany diarrhea. Fever is present in some instances, usually when the diarrhea is moderately severe. The degree of toxicity is also variable, from patients not appearing sick to those who are desperately ill or moribund. All combinations of symptoms are seen in infants and children at various times. The frequency of the stools, the degree of toxicity, and duration of the diarrhea determine the severity and prognosis of the illness.

Pathological Chemistry.—Dehydration.—Most important is the increased loss of fluid through the stool, often accompanied by vomiting or refusal of oral fluids with depletion of the fluid content of the extracellular tissues. If the depletion is severe and prolonged, blood volume decreases because of the negative water balance (dehydration). This in turn causes a decrease in kidney function with concentration of the urine, retention of metabolites and reduction of ammonia formation.

Acidosis.—Sodium is lost through the stools in excess of chloride during diarrhea and acidosis results. This acidosis may be increased or ketosis when carbohydrate stores have been metabolized and fat is burned in large quantities. In addition ammonia production falls and organic acids accumulate in the blood. Recently Darrow has shown that potassium may pass from the intracellular fluid into the extracellular fluid and be lost in the intestinal contents. At times the potassium may not be lost from the extracellular tissues but sodium may replace it in the intracellular fluids and accentuate the acidosis. Rapoport has shown that calcium is lost from the body during diarrhea and hypocalcemia may account for the sudden collapse in infants after a severe diarrhea has been brought under control.

Alkalosis.—Persistent vomiting may in rare instances cause greater loss of chloride in the vomitus than loss of sodium in the diarrheal stool with resulting alkalosis.

Therapy.—Specific measures should be taken when they are available to combat the cause of the diarrhea. In bacillary and amoebic dysentery specific chemotherapeutic agents are available. When parenteral infections occur they usually respond to sulfa-mide or antibiotic therapy.

Food allergies may exceptionally result in a mild but persistent diarrhea in older children. Egg white, milk, and wheat are the common food allergens. The diarrhea subsides promptly when the offending food is removed from the diet. Rarely should all food items be removed at once from the diet. Such a diet is described elsewhere, (see Infantile Eczema) but Nutramigen should be substituted in this diet for soybean products since the latter tend to cause diarrhea in some patients. Wheat free, egg free, and lactose free diets will be found at the end of this section.

The specific dietary treatment of celiac disease, starch intolerance, and cystic fibrosis of the pancreas are discussed elsewhere (see Celiac Syndrome).

Diet Therapy.—General Considerations.—Treatment of diarrhea by diet is aimed first at decreasing and modifying the food intake slightly in the case of mild diarrhea to completely in the case of severe diarrhea, in order to decrease the quantity of undigested and partly digested food which might act as an irritant to the large intestines and prolong the diarrhea. Secondly, the total fluid intake is increased to maintain a positive fluid balance. A variety of fluids may be offered to patients with mild diarrhea, such as water, weak tea, boiled diluted milk, small quantities of diluted fruit juice, barley water, and clear broth. Older children may also be offered carbonated beverages. Patients with moderately severe diarrhea may be offered only water, physiological saline solution or weak tea. Patients with very severe diarrhea require complete oral starvation with fluids administered parenterally by subcutaneous, intravenous, intraperitoneal, or bone marrow infusion route.

There seems to be little indication for the administration of a cathartic initially in the treatment of diarrhea of any origin. The author has seen several cases of acute appendicitis begin with diarrhea as the only symptom, with perforation of the appendix resulting from the routine administration of a cathartic. Other medications in common use for the treatment of diarrhea are paregoric, apple powder, tomato powder, and various preparations containing pectin. Paregoric is rarely of value in decreasing the diarrhea and is contraindicated if abdominal distention is present. Apple powder, tomato powder, and pectin preparations appear to be of definite value in the treatment of mild diarrheas of older infants and children but of doubtful value in severe diarrheas and in the diarrheas of small infants.

Treatment of Mild Diarrhea.—Breast Fed Infants.—If the diarrhea is very mild, it usually comes under control promptly when the

quantity of breast milk taken is reduced. This is simply achieved by offering a few ounces of boiled water or weak tea immediately before a feeding and by shortening the nursing time to five minutes for 3 to 4 feedings. If the diarrhea is of moderate severity it is possible to omit 2 breast feedings entirely, offering only boiled water or weak tea every three to four hours. Then, the infant may be offered the breast for five minutes after taking some water in the following twenty-four to forty-eight hours. As the diarrhea comes under control normal breast feeding may be resumed. The infant rarely cries with hunger during this period since the appetite and tolerance for food are generally reduced during the period of diarrhea.

Artificially Fed Infants.—If the diarrhea is very mild it may be easily controlled by the elimination of added carbohydrate from the formula. If the infant is receiving whole milk, the milk should be boiled for five minutes and diluted $\frac{1}{3}$ with water, that is, 1 ounce of water for each 2 ounces of milk offered. In addition the infant may be given water, tea, and diluted fruit juices. This period of partial starvation may be continued for twenty-four to forty-eight hours depending on the return of the stools to normal. Moderately severe diarrheas require the elimination of all fluids by mouth except water and tea for eight to twelve hours. If the diarrhea abates on this regimen, the infant may be offered skimmed milk which has been boiled for five minutes and diluted with $\frac{1}{3}$ water for an additional twelve to twenty-four hours. Other foods may then be added gradually, if previously given, in the same order in which they were started in infancy. (See Artificial Feeding).

Treatment of Diarrhea in Older Children.—Diarrhea in older children is usually due to gastro-intestinal infection or dietary indiscretions. It is often accompanied by considerable vomiting. Dehydration and electrolyte disturbances are rarely of clinical importance in these children and do not require specific therapy for correction as they do in infants. If the vomiting is severe even fluids must be withheld for a few hours. The patient may then be permitted sips of water for the next three to four hours and this may be followed by carbonated liquids such as gingerale, pepsicola, and cola. This period of starvation also tends to bring the diarrhea under control at the same time. Cathartics are contraindicated because of the occasional occurrence of acute appendicitis in the cases. The pectin preparations, such as Kaopectate, are of considerable value in this type of diarrhea as they help bring the diarrhea under control. The quantity to be offered depends upon the severity of the diarrhea and the age of the child. Foods like cereal, bread, rice, and boiled milk may generally be started after twenty-four hours and a return to normal diet made in two to three days.

Severe Diarrhea in Infants.—Severe diarrhea is considerably more dangerous in infants than it is in older children because of the ease with which infants develop dehydration. The dehydration which develops in infants with severe diarrhea is accompanied by

extensive changes in the electrolytes of the body including intracellular and extracellular ions as well as those of the blood. Sodium is lost in considerable excess of chloride in diarrhea, usually in a ratio of 3:2. Potassium loss from the stools is considerable and the loss may equal $\frac{1}{4}$ of the entire body content of potassium. In addition the intracellular deficit of potassium may be increased when the diarrhea has been brought under control by replacement by potassium in the cells with sodium. The acidosis which accompanies diarrhea mobilizes calcium from the bones and results in loss of calcium from the body by way of the stools, the amount lost being proportional to the duration and severity of the acidosis which accompanies the diarrhea. When the diarrhea has been brought under control and the acidosis overcome (post-acidotic state) calcium may be suddenly withdrawn from the blood into the bones and a significant degree of hypocalcemia may develop.

We are indebted to Darrow, Rapoport and their co-workers for the recent vital studies on the significance of potassium, calcium, phosphorus, and phosphatase deficits in severe diarrhea and in the post-acidotic state. The mortality from severe diarrhea is significantly lower when potassium chloride is added to the water and salt solution which is ordinarily administered to overcome dehydration and acidosis. Severe dehydration may be associated with high levels of potassium in the blood and potassium therapy must be withheld for a few hours until the dehydration has been partially overcome. Similarly if urine secretion is scanty potassium therapy must be withheld until renal function has been re-established by administration of a physiological saline solution intravenously or subcutaneously. There is little danger of potassium intoxication developing if the kidneys are functioning and the more severe degree of dehydration has been overcome. The toxic level of potassium in the blood is 10 to 12 mm. Slow administration of potassium (8 to 12 hours) in the dosage recommended by Darrow should produce no danger of potassium intoxication (bradycardia or cardiac standstill) if renal function is normal. The antidote for potassium intoxication is calcium given intravenously. According to Rapoport calcium salts should not be given intravenously in combination with dextrose solutions because of the danger of necrosis of tissue in the vicinity of the vein injected with such a solution.

Severe diarrhea has been divided into 2 phases by Rapoport and his co-workers:

1. Acidosis and dehydration during the period of diarrhea with loss of water and intracellular and extracellular electrolytes.
2. A post-acidotic state after subsidence of the diarrhea and correction of deficits of water and extracellular electrolytes with rapid up-take of intracellular electrolytes by the depleted soft tissues and bone and depletion of the electrolytes from the blood.

In addition to the loss of potassium as demonstrated by Darrow, Rapoport and his co-workers have shown that there is a similar depletion of calcium, phosphorus, and phosphatase from the blood.

the post-acidotic phase. The loss of extracellular electrolytes is proportional to the loss of extracellular fluids during the diarrhea. The loss of calcium from the body during the diarrhea is proportional to the duration and severity of the acidosis. The loss of potassium is partly proportional to the degree of destruction of the cells, partly to the decrease of the volume of the intracellular fluid. The deficit of calcium in the post-acidotic state is increased by the poor absorption of calcium by the gastro-intestinal tract and the increased withdrawal of calcium from the blood into the bones. The rapid uptake of calcium by the bones in the post-acidotic state results in increased utilization of phosphatase and a decrease of phosphatase in the blood.

The post-acidotic state has been described by Rapoport and the clinical findings are related to the deficit of calcium in the blood. Changes in the infant as a result of hypocalcemia in the post-acidotic state may be divided into 4 groups:

- Changes in neuromuscular function, with convulsions, spasticity, carpopedal spasms, and nystagmus.

- Changes in autonomous functions, with irregular respiration, bradycardia, circulatory collapse, abdominal distention, pallor and cyanosis.

- Changes in hydration and regularity of temperature, with edema and fever.

- Hemorrhagic manifestations, with hematemesis, hematuria, blood in the stools and intracranial bleeding.

Failure to anticipate or treat the post-acidotic state may result in death or permanent cerebral damage to the infant after the diarrhea has been successfully brought under control.

Management of Severe Diarrhea.

- Oral feeding should be eliminated until the diarrhea has been brought under control. This period may last from one day to one week. Occasionally in some cases of epidemic diarrhea of the newborn, the diarrhea may persist for some weeks and oral feedings may have to be withheld for that period.

- Whole blood transfusion may be required if the patient is in shock. This may be given immediately on admission to the hospital if the condition of the infant is poor. The amount of blood recommended is 20 ml. per kilogram of body weight plus an equal volume of physiological saline.

- Water, glucose and electrolytes are given parenterally (intravenous, subcutaneous, bone marrow or intraperitoneal) during the first twenty-four hours of therapy in amounts calculated to overcome dehydration and acidosis and make up the electrolyte deficit. This may be achieved by administering 80 to 150 ml. per kilogram of Darrow's solution plus sufficient 5 per cent glucose solution to make the total fluid intake 150 to 280 ml. per kilogram of body weight in twenty-four hours. Darrow's solution may be made by either of the following formulas:

KCl	2 grams	KCl	2 grams
NaCl	3 grams	NaCl	3 grams
Molar sodium lactate	40 ml.	$\frac{1}{2}$ Molar sodium lactate	250 ml.
Water	710 ml.	Water	500 ml.

After the first twenty-four hours, Darrow's solution may be given parenterally in amounts from 20 to 50 ml.-kg. with the total volume made up to 150 - 200 ml. per kilogram of body weight with the addition of 5 per cent glucose solution. This is continued as long as the patient passes loose stools.

If the diarrhea is prolonged beyond one week, it may be advisable to substitute an amino acid preparation (Amigen - Mead Johnson) for the glucose solution in order to maintain nutrition. Amigen may be given intravenously in quantities of 100 to 200 ml. per kilogram of body weight. Five hundred ml. of Amigen supplies 1000 calories and 1 gram of NaCl.

When the diarrhea has come under control, oral feeding may be begun. As long as the oral feeding supplies less than 70 cal.-kg. 2 grams of KCl should be added to the feeding. When the oral feeding is adequate to maintain nutrition, the added KCl may be discontinued since ordinary formulæ contain adequate potassium.

Calcium therapy should be begun as soon as the patient begins to pass from the acidotic to the post-acidotic state, for proper timing may eliminate the hazards of the latter. Close observation of the condition of the patient, chemical changes in the blood, and a decrease in the frequency of stools often point to the shift to the post-acidotic state. Unless the diarrhea is recurrent, calcium chloride is used and should be given in doses of 3 to 4 grams daily for two to five days, then reduced to 2 grams daily. Large infants may require a larger dose; premature infants require only 2 grams daily. The calcium chloride solution should not exceed 5 per cent concentration, and more dilute solutions are preferable. For intravenous administration the solution should not be stronger than 1 per cent.

Oral feeding may be started cautiously when stools have become normal for twenty-four to forty-eight hours. Sterile water should be offered every three to four hours in small amounts (4 ml.) double the amount offered at the previous feeding if there is no vomiting or recurrence of diarrhea. After twenty-four hours a dilute feed may be offered, containing 10 cal.-kg. and diluted to contain 150 ml. water per kilogram ($2\frac{1}{2}$ oz.-lb.). If part is refused, the fluid intake is supplemented by parenteral administration of 5 per cent glucose in physiological saline. As noted previously 1 to 2 grams of KCl are added to the feeding. The caloric intake is gradually increased to normal over a period of one to two weeks.

Formulas that are satisfactory for the initial oral feeding of infants with diarrhea should be low in fat, preferably are acidified and easily digested. A number of such preparations are available. Powdered acidulated protein milk (Mead Johnson, Merrill-Soule S M A) or powdered skim lactic acid milk (Mead Johnson, Merrill-Soule) are satisfactory. Their composition is described elsewhere (Proprietary Milks for Infant Feeding).

Example: Infant 4.0 kg. (9 lbs.)

Fluid intake, 4 kg. \times 150 ml. = 600 ml. (20 oz.)

Caloric intake, 4 kg. \times 10 cal. = 40 cal. = 8 gm. (1 tbsp.)

Days of Oral Feeding	1	3	5	7	9	11-14
¹ P.P.M.	1	2	4	6	8	10
² Water	20	20	20	20	20	20
Cal. per pound	44	9	18	27	36	45
	1	3	5	7	9	11 14
*P.P.M.	8	16	32	48	64	80
**Water	600	600	600	600	600	600
Cal/kg.	10	20	40	80	100	120

¹Tablespoonfuls of Powdered Protein Milk

²Ounces

*Grams of powdered protein milk

**Ml.

Wheat Free Diet

Allergic to Wheat Alone, Foods Permitted Are:

Drinks

Cocoa, fresh or bottled fruit juices, mineral or carbonated waters

Breads

Crackers or breads (made without wheat), corn bread or corn pone, oatmeal or potato muffins, rice, Ry Krisp and rye

Cereals

Barley, barley flour, corn flakes, corn meal, cornstarch, potato flour, rice flakes, rolled oats, rye and tapioca, or Ry Krisp wafers, creamed and served with cream and sugar

Eggs

Baked, coddled, deviled, escalloped, fried, hard or soft boiled, poached, omelets, baked, custards, scrambled

Fats

Butter, meat, poultry or vegetable fats, olive or other salad oils and oleomargarine

Fruits

All kinds, raw, canned or plain cooked with sugar, honey or syrups

Meats

All meats may be eaten if they are not prepared with wheat products. Do not use ready-prepared meats, such as cervelat, hamburger, meat loaf, and sausages, as they frequently contain wheat products as fillers.

Milk and Its Products

Butter, buttermilk, cheese, cream, evaporated milk, ice cream and sherbets

Starches and Other Desserts

Bavarian cream, cornstarch pudding, fruit gelatins, homemade jellies or ice creams, oatmeal, rice or rye cookies, tapioca pudding, Indian pudding, Ry Krisp, pastry and candied Apple Betty

Poultry and Game

Do not use wheat products in preparation.

Seafoods

Use no wheat products in preparation.

Soups

Homemade cream, meat and vegetable soups

Sugars

Brown, granulated, powdered, confectioner's and maple. If made jellies, jam preserves, and candies.

Vegetables

All kinds, canned, cooked or raw. Add only butter, milk cream in preparation.

If Allergic to Wheat Avoid:

Beverages

Cereal beverages make from wheat

Breads

Hot breads, such as muffins, popovers, baking powder biscuits make with wheat products, griddle cakes, waffles, doughnuts

Wheat Breads

This will include the following:

Corn bread

Crackers of all kinds (does not include Ry Krisp)

Gluten bread

Graham bread

Pretzels

Rye bread

White bread

Whole wheat bread

Cracker Crumbs

Cracker meal

Graham flour

Macaroni

Noodles

Spaghetti

Vermicelli

Bread Crumbs

Buckwheat

Wheat flour in any form—whole wheat, graham or white or a mixture of grain flour that may have wheat content.

Desserts and Pastries

Cakes, cookies, boiled custards—unless thickened with eggs, cornstarch, dumplings, puddings, pies and pastries of all kinds—unless made without wheat products.

Miscellaneous

Gravies and cream sauces which are thickened with wheat products

Malt products

Yeast cakes

Note:

Be very careful not to use any of the wheat products to thicken sauces, gravies, or other foods. Do not use flour or bread crumbs

tain juices of meat about to be cooked. In short, ascertain whether or not there is any possibility of the presence of any wheat products anywhere in your food, as the most minute amounts are sometimes troublesome.

Egg Free Diet

Allergic to Eggs Alone, Foods Permitted Are:

Drinks
Tea, fresh or bottled fruit juices, mineral or carbonated waters

Breads
Krisp, corn pone; most breads which are bought have eggs in them or are brushed with egg white to glaze the tops.

Cereals
Barley, barley flour, corn flakes, corn meal, cornstarch, potato flakes, rice flakes, rolled oats, rye and tapioca

Fats
Butter, meat, poultry or vegetable fats, olive or other salad oils, and oleomargarine

Sweets
All kinds, raw, canned or plain cooked with sugars, honey or syrups

Ice Creams, Sherbets and Candies

Made at home without the use of eggs, or foods containing eggs—listed below.

Meats
All kinds, not prepared with eggs

Dairy and Its Products

Butter, buttermilk, cheese, cream, evaporated milk, ice cream and sherbets

Poultry and Game

Do not use egg products in preparation.

Salad Dressing

Made at home without the use of eggs.

Stews

Use no eggs in preparation.

Soups
Homemade, cream, meat and vegetable soups.

Jellies
Lemon, granulated, powdered, and maple. Homemade jellies, jams, preserves, and candies

Vegetables

All kinds, canned, cooked or raw. Add only butter, milk or cream in preparation. *Do not combine with eggs.*

Allergic to Eggs, Avoid:

Dishes

Those containing eggs, such as

Baked	Coddled	Creamed
Beviled	Egg drinks	Egg sauces
Escalloped	Fried	Egg whips

Foods containing eggs, such as—(*Continued*)

Omelets	Poached	Hard or soft cook
Shirred	Meringues	Noodles
Pretzels	Puddings	Spanish cream
Timbales	Waffles	Custards
Doughnuts	Fritters	Griddle cakes
Macaroons	Marshmallows	Malted cocoa drink
Mayonnaise		
Bread foods in which the adherent used has been an egg mixt		
Baking powders, except Royal		
Cakes and cookies, unless homemade without eggs		
Frostings, unless homemade without eggs		
Ice cream, unless homemade without eggs		

Note:

This list points out the foods most likely to be used. Do not use eggs in any way, either as such or as an ingredient in a prepared food. Do not clear soup with eggs. Use the utmost caution in choosing foods which are purchased prepared, to be sure that they have no egg content.

Milk Free Diet

If Allergic to Milk Alone, Foods Permitted Are:

Beverages

Cocoa, made with water—without milk or cream. Fresh bottled fruit juices, mineral or carbonated waters.

Breads

Ry-Krisp, corn pone, and others in which there are no dairy products.

Candies

Homemade with water, such as fondant, molasses taffy, French paste and divinity

Cereals

Any cereal served without milk or cream

Eggs

Baked, coddled, deviled, escalloped, fried, hard or soft cooked, poached, omelets, scrambled

Do Not Use Milk or Butter in Their Preparation.

Fats

Poultry, vegetable or meat fats, olive or other salad oils. Use only oleomargarines that you are certain do not contain any of the butter fats. (Some commercial brands are churned in milk).

Fruits

All kinds, raw, canned or plain, cooked with sugar, honey or syrup without milk or cream.

Ices

Fruit ices made with water (Do not use prepared brands).

Meats

All meat may be eaten if not prepared with dairy products.

Do not use any product in soup such as noodles, that may contain any of the dairy products.

Miscellaneous

Popcorn, potato chips, raisins, and salad dressings (if made at home without the addition of dairy products).

Pies

Cookies, cakes, pie crust, puddings and shortcake made without dairy products.

Relishes

All kinds

Meat, Poultry and Game

Do not use dairy products in preparation.

Salad Dressing

Made without dairy products, such as French dressing or mayonnaise.

What is Permitted

Condiments

Use no dairy products in preparation.

Meats

Homemade meat and vegetable.

Syrups

Brown, granulated, powdered, confectioner's, and maple. Homemade jellies, jams and preserves. Honey and preserves prepared without the use of dairy products.

Vegetables

All kinds, canned, cooked, raw. Do not add butter, milk or cream in preparation.

Allergic to Milk, Avoid:

Beverages

Chocolate or cocoa as a beverage (unless made with water), salted milk.

Breads

Hot breads, such as muffins, popovers, baking powder biscuits, middle cakes, waffles, doughnuts, unless prepared without milk or other dairy products.

Flat Breads

Such as: White bread, whole wheat bread, rye bread, graham, unless prepared without milk or other dairy products.

Candies

Unless you are certain they do not contain dairy products.

Ice Creams

Cakes and cookies (containing dairy products)
Ice cream, milk or other cream sherbets, puddings, and sauces, such as hard sauce.

Salads Prepared With Milk

Boiled salad dressing, creamed foods, custards, escalloped dishes,

Dishes Prepared With Milk—(Continued)

foods prepared au gratin, gravies, cream or other dairy products, milk or cream sauces, omelets, or scrambled eggs, rare soufflés, timbales.

Soups

Bisques, chowders unless made with water, milk or cream soups.

Dairy Products

Butter, buttermilk, cheese, condensed milk, evaporated or dried milk, cream, curd, ice cream and sherbets, milk—whole, skimmed, powdered or malted milk (whey).

Oleomargarine

If churned in milk.

Note:

Do not cook with any of the forbidden foods listed above. When purchasing ready prepared food products, be sure that they do not contain dairy products. If you are not absolutely certain, consult your physician.

DIPHTHERIA

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Diphtheria is an acute infectious disease usually involving the nasopharynx and caused by *C. diphtheriae*. The infection is localized to the tissue which harbors the diphtheria bacillus, but a powerful toxin is elaborated at the site of infection and absorbed into the circulation. The disease is variable in its severity according to the pathogenicity of the organism and the degree of resistance of the patient. The amount of diphtheria in a community varies inversely with the number of immune people in the community. It occurs most frequently during the cold months and is most frequent in children.

The most common site of diphtheritic infection is the pharynx. Less common is laryngo-tracheal diphtheria, and least common is nasal diphtheria. A necrotic pseudo-membrane forms on the infected area and extends rapidly over the adjacent mucous membrane. Fever is moderate. Cervical adenopathy is usually considerable. As the toxin is absorbed into the circulation toxemia becomes apparent. In the more severe cases capillary fragility is increased and hemorrhages occur. Involvement of the larynx by the diphtheritic membrane may cause an obstruction to respiration which can be fatal.

Complications include bronchopneumonia, atelectasis, myocarditis, peripheral neuritis, peripheral circulatory collapse, muscle paralysis, particularly palatal paralysis.

Diet.—It is obvious that the patient is generally too ill to take other than fluids and in cases of laryngeal obstruction or palatal paralysis it may be necessary to pass a nasal catheter into the stomach in order to continue feeding.

The patient who has had a laryngeal intubation may require tube feeding initially, but generally becomes capable of swallowing

s when he is accustomed to the tube. Not infrequently fluids
t be administered parenterally.

s soon as the patient is able to take solid food, the nutritional
irement must be considered, particularly the vitamins. A high
ric soft diet should be offered. Thiamin chloride and ascorbic
should be administered in large quantities from the onset
ause of the tendency to hemorrhage and peripheral neuritis.
en there is evidence of myocarditis 10 or 20 per cent glucose
uld be given intravenously daily.

DYSENTERY, AMEBIC.

Discussion.—The incidence of amebic dysentery is far greater
n is popularly accepted. A recent mild epidemic—because of
warnings to the physicians at large—has brought to light a great
nber of cases which would otherwise have gone undetected. In
ry case of intermittent diarrhea an amebic etiology should be
sidered.

The impression that this condition is pretty well restricted to the
tern nations and the various subtropical countries has been
monstrated to be a fallacy.

Dietetically, the management of this type of condition is very
ilar to that prescribed under mucous colitis. It has been pointed
t that in addition to this diet regimen there should be a limitation
sugar. In view of the fact that the majority of these cases do
t present a severe anemia and emaciation, as depicted in ulcera-
e colitis, the infiltration of foods high in protein is not specifically
licated.

As a general rule, the diet for the second stage of mucous colitis
n frequently be employed.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Strained fruit juice
Strained cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Egg, except fried
Toast with butter
Coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Choice: minced meat, fish, egg or cheese
Puréed vegetables
Bread and butter
Choice: apple sauce, mashed ripe banana, puréed apricots,
peaches, pears or prunes
Milk or tea with lemon

Dinner:

Strained soup
Minced meat or fish
Potato, baked or mashed

Typical Menu—(Continued.)*Dinner—Continued.*

Puréed vegetable
 Bread with butter
 Simple dessert
 Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

NOTE.—Sugar should be used sparingly.

Suggestions.—Reference should be made to Foods Lowest in Roughage, Fluid Foods, Bland Foods and Soft Foods for additional items to be used in the menus. Further menus can be found under Irritable Colon and Ulcerative Colitis.

In the management of acute attacks of amebic dysentery, various writers concur in the institution of a starvation period of two or three days with the patient in bed. During this period, the administration of water, fruit juices, broth, bouillon, weak tea or coffee is indicated. Following this stage, various gruels can be administered but it is considered good practice to leave out milk for the first four or six days. After this regimen, a return to the previously normal dietary is in order.

ECLAMPSIA.

Refer to page 416.

ECZEMA AND NEURO-DERMATITIS.

Refer to page 291.

ENURESIS.

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Discussion.—Along dietetic lines it has been brought out that certain foods and drinks have a profound influence upon enuresis. These are coffee, tea, cocoa and spirituous liquors. Spirituous liquors are given to children of various races under the impression that "they are healthful." Italian children receive wine very early, German children, beer, and Jewish children receive wine during certain holidays. Enuresis has been attributed to the diuretic action of alcohol, caffeine and theobromine, found in these foods. There are numerous cases that have been cured merely by the withdrawal of coffee or tea and in some instances wine. The author has seen a case of recurrent enuresis in a Jewish child that remained dormant for a year, and then started during the holidays due to the imbibing of wine.

In addition, it is believed that in certain children the bladder innervation is not well developed, but sufficiently so to hold normal night output of urine. If in these children, a little more than the normal night output is added, enuresis results. To overcome this, the child is stopped from drinking four hours before

me, and evacuation is demanded prior to retiring. This four-hour interval should certainly be more than sufficient to allow the glands to secrete the remainder of the day specimen. This treatment, if rigidly and firmly carried out, may be aided by other measures. The following procedure has been found to be of practical use:

No coffee, tea, cocoa or spirituous liquors.

No fluids of any nature four hours before retiring.

Hydrotherapy, a cold friction rub of the chest, sides and lumbar region, is sometimes helpful in older children in order to relieve the stasis and congestion of the internal organs.

Elevate the foot of the bed 1 or 2 inches from the floor. This tends to allow gravity to relieve urinary pressure on the trigonum, and pressure in itself may act as an irritant and stimulus.

Try to have the patient sleep on the right side and not on the left. The theory is that congestion of the spine results from the left and is avoided in the former. This can be accomplished by Mosby's simple method of tying a towel around the patient with a knot at the back.

Hands should be kept above the coverings, in order to prevent unconscious friction of the genitalia.

Atropine sulphate by mouth, is frequently found to be of value. It helps to relieve any vesicular irritation or spasm. A suggested method of administration is as follows:

R Atropine sulphate	0.0325
Aq. dest. q.s. ad	15.0000
M. et Sig.: gttts as directed.	

One drop of the above solution is equivalent to $\frac{1}{5000}$ grain of atropine. Start by giving 1 to 3 drops, three times a day, increasing 1 drop in twenty-four hours, until the desired result is obtained. Should not be forgotten, however, that while the patient is taking atropine, great caution must be observed to note the symptoms of atropine poisoning, disturbances of vision, tachycardia, dry mouth and skin rash.

If the enuresis is of psychologic origin, the diet and rules will be of material benefit, but if caused by a local or focal cause, the diet will be of no assistance until this focus has been removed.

In planning a diet, another factor that may be of some assistance is using a salt-free or salt-poor diet wherever possible, to diminish osmotic thirst. The dietary details can be found elsewhere.

EPILEPSY.

GEORGE A. BLAKESLEE, M.D.

Discussion.—The term, epilepsy, is derived from the Greek meaning "seizure" and is one of the oldest known diseases. The modern belief is that this disease is a symptom of some underlying physical disturbance rather than an entity in itself.

Among the propounded etiologies are heredity, birth injury, postnatal traumatism, brain tumors and cysts, infections, glandular imbalances, etc. Each of the suggested etiologies is capable of presenting startling illustrations of cures when measures have been taken to eradicate or correct the proved fault. However, with respect to the amount of work which has been done on this disease, no one etiology has been determined for any great percentage of cases. The term, idiopathic epilepsy, a cloak for our ignorance, still flourishes.

A multitude of diets of both bizarre and scientific nature have been evolved. Each diet has had its adherents, but the majority of the diets have not withstood the test of time. Fundamental aside from any dietetic changes directed specifically at the disease, a well-balanced diet consisting of the proper proportions of carbohydrate, fat, protein, mineral salts, vitamins and fluid intake is the one of choice. Correction of such conditions as constipation, a commonly associated symptom of epilepsy, ptosis, atonicity, anemia, etc., should be conjointly effected.

During the past decade several diets offering results in epilepsy have been advanced. Chief among these is the ketogenic diet.

It was observed by Wilder that children who were subject to epileptic seizures ceased the attacks when undergoing starvation. It was recognized that starvation produced an acidosis with associated ketonuria, lowered blood CO_2 combining power and an alteration in the H^+ concentration. It was thought that the production of this acidosis acted with a sedative effect and thereby prevented the convulsive seizures.

Talbot expresses the opinion that the acidosis produces its effect probably by renal stimulation and thus increases the fluid output, establishing thereby a condition of relative dehydration.

Bearing in mind the apparent efficacy of dehydration as exhibited by cases of acidosis, the ketogenic diet was formulated. As far back as 1769, Stark showed that diets high in fat and low in carbohydrate have a dehydrating effect. This observation has been repeatedly confirmed by other investigators. The continuation of a ketogenic diet alters the general metabolism with the resultant diminution of tissue fluids. The time-worn slogan that "fat burns in a carbohydrate flame" is still invariably true. The ketogenic diet is one in which a disproportionately high amount of fat in relation to the minimum amount of carbohydrate is ingested. The result of this diet—due to faulty combustion of the excess of fat—is ketosis.

Further details in reference to acidosis can be found under Diabetes Mellitus.

It is questionable whether the results accompanied by the diet are due to dehydration, acidosis or some unknown or unrecognized factor.

In his management of epileptic cases subjected to the ketogenic diet, the author generally maintains a further restriction of liquid. In this way the patient not only is subjected to dehydration by the diet but also by limitation of fluids.

Typical Menu.

	AMOUNT.	
	Quantitative.	Household.
Breakfast:		
Eggs	2	2
Bacon, cooked	25 grams	4, 7" strips
Cream	55 cc.	Scant $\frac{1}{4}$ c.
Butter	20 grams	4 t.
Bread	25 grams	1 slice
6 per cent fruit	70 grams	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Luncheon:		
Meat	70 grams	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
3 per cent vegetable	135 grams	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.
Potato	40 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium
Cream	45 cc.	$\frac{1}{5}$ c.
Cheese	15 grams	2" x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ " slice
Bread	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ slice
Butter	25 grams	5 t.
Dinner:		
Meat	40 grams	Scant 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
3 per cent vegetable	135 grams	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.
Bacon, cooked	15 grams	2, 7" strips
Cream	40 cc.	3 T.
Cheese	15 grams	2" x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ " slice
6 per cent fruit	50 grams	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.
Bread	20 grams	1 thin slice
Butter	30 grams	2 balls

Extras:

(One-third to each meal) Olive oil, 90 cc.; lemon juice, 50 cc.

Afternoon:

Olive oil, 30 cc.; lemon juice, 15 cc.

Summary:

Fat, 260 grams; carbohydrate, 80 grams; protein, 80 grams; calories, approximately 3000.

Modified Cuneo Diet.

Another diet is used as a result of the work of Cuneo, an Italian investigator. He names the proteoses as the convulsion-producing substances in epilepsy. A defect in the alkalization function of the small intestine and liver in the process of carbohydrate metabolism acts in some way upon the components of the blood and, under certain conditions, liberates the substances which cause the convulsions, namely, the proteoses, according to Cuneo.

An organic acidosis is produced in the epilepsies, and the cause of this acidosis was thought to be in the first phase of the metabolism of starch substances, that is when starch is transformed into mal-

tose. Since 1917, when these therapeutic experiments were begun, a special diet was ordered and restricted in the amount of carbohydrates. This, combined with the administration of an alkali by mouth has apparently given very encouraging results. It is thought that the factor of importance in epilepsy was the acidosis, regardless of whether this depends on a viciously functioning carbohydrate metabolism which causes a general toxicosis, or upon the local production of the toxic substances from disintegrating cell structures in the blood stream and secondary to vascular disturbances. This diet restricts carbohydrates and the administration of alkalis by mouth.

In a 3000 Calorie diet the protein content should be at least 100 grams which will provide approximately 280 Calories for an individual weighing about 150 pounds. This provides protein at a ratio of 1 gram per kilo (2.2 pounds) of body weight. The remaining calories should be obtained from equal caloric amounts of carbohydrates and sugars. This requirement will necessitate the use of about 200 grams of carbohydrates and 150 grams of fats. In this diet it is essential that the body must use the sugar needed in the breakdown of proteins and possibly also the fats, so that these two essential nutrients must be built up in the diet and the carbohydrates diminished. Fluid intake is not restricted.

For this diet the following foods are suggested:

Advised.

<i>Fruits.</i>	<i>Fruits.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>
Apricots	Pineapple	Bread
Figs	Stewed pears	Bran bread
Grapefruit	Stewed prunes	Bran muffins
<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Vegetables.</i>	<i>Soups.</i>
Dietetic bread	Asparagus	Beef broth
Dietetic flour	Beans, fresh	Bouillon
Graham bread	Beets	Celery soup
Whole wheat bread	Cabbage	Chicken broth
	Carrots	Fruit soup
	Cauliflower	Mock turtle
<i>Milk and Dairy</i>	Celery	Mutton broth
<i>Products.</i>	Cucumbers	Ox-tail
Butter	Eggplant	Vegetable soups
Buttermilk	Greens	
Cheese	Kale	<i>Beverages.</i>
Cottage cheese	Lettuce	Eggnog
Cream	Radishes	Mineral waters
Koumiss	Rhubarb	
Oleomargarine	Spinach	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>
Sweet milk	Tomatoes	Brazil nuts
Zoolak	Watercress	<i>Desserts.</i>
Eggs		Gelatin
<i>Game.</i>	<i>Poultry.</i>	
Rabbit	Chicken	Squab
Venison	Duck	Turkey
		Goose

ed—Continued.

	<i>Meats.</i>	
	Kidneys	Pork
	Lamb, Mutton	Sweetbreads
ped beef	Liver	Tongue
ed beef	Mutton	Tripe
	Pigs' feet	Veal
<i>Fruits.</i>	<i>Beverages.</i>	<i>Breads.</i>
es	Chocolate	Biscuits
anas	Cocoa	Corn bread
es	Coffee and Tea	Crackers
seberries	Fruit juices	Gluten bread
es	Malted milk	Raisin bread
ons		Rye bread
ges	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>	Zwieback
ns	Almonds	
sins	Chestnuts	
gerines	Cocoanut	
	Filberts	
	Peanuts	
	Peanut butter	
	Pecans	
	Sugar and Syrups	
<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Appetizers.</i>	<i>Desserts.</i>
ley	Pickles	Cake
nmeal		Candy
cked Wheat	<i>Vegetables.</i>	Ices
ina	Beans, dried	Jams
miny	Corn	Jellies
caroni	Peas	Pastries
ize	Potatoes, white and	Preserves
odles	sweet	Puddings
meal	Pumpkin	Sago
	<i>Soups.</i>	Tapioca
ed Oats	Cream soups	
ghetti	Noodle soup	
micelli	Pea soup	
	Rice soup	
	Thick soups	

ALLOWED ONCE WEEKLY.

Fruits.
 rants
 kleberries
Soups.
 ley soup
 n soup
 wders
 n soup

ALLOWED TWICE WEEKLY.

Vegetables.
 Brussels sprouts
 Mushrooms
 Onions
 Parsnips
 Squash
 String beans, fresh
 Turnips

Allowed once weekly. (Continued)		Allowed twice weekly (Continued)	
<i>Vegetables.</i>		<i>Appetizers.</i>	
Artichokes		Olives	
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		<i>Fruits.</i>	
Hickory nuts		Apricots	Muskmelon
Walnuts		Blackberries	Peaches
		Blueberries	Pears
<i>Desserts.</i>		Cherries	Raspberries
Ice-cream		Cranberries	Strawberries

Cane sugar should be sprinkled in generous quantities on cherries, grapefruit, etc., and a tablespoonful of milk sugar should be added to every large glass of milk.

Suggestions.—Despite the enormous amount of research which has been done in the study of the causes and in the treatment of epilepsy, no specific treatment of this condition has been determined. However, many patients have been greatly aided by the two diets suggested. All violent exercises and too fatiguing physical work should be avoided. An afternoon rest period, especially with children, is often helpful. Patients who are constipated should use alkaline laxatives. Sodium bicarbonate, gr. v, is prescribed twice daily in specially enteric-coated tablets so the alkali may reach the small intestine. Especially in the first weeks of the treatment, colonic irrigations may be used (1 tablespoonful of sodium bicarbonate in 1 gallon of warm water) until the return flow is clear. This is given after a simple soap water enema. Little if any sedative medication should be used except in a "status epilepticus," and then it should be given by the intravenous route.

ERYTHEMA.

Refer to page 294.

EXANTHEMATA

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Infants and children are susceptible to a large variety of acute infections. The younger the child, the lower is his resistance to many diseases with which he is brought in contact. It is not unusual for children under the age of three years to contract acute respiratory infections, such as tonsillitis, common colds, and ear infections, often as every three or four weeks. This frequency, however, does not interfere with the state of nutrition of most children for they are capable of regaining rapidly the weight that they have lost when ill. Another important consideration is the anorexia which fairly regularly accompanies most acute infections. This problem in maintaining an adequate caloric intake arises only in the course of long drawn out and chronic illnesses. Indeed, an attempt to make a child take a normal or high caloric diet in the presence of infections such as tonsillitis, otitis media, pyelitis, and pneumonia, usually

is in complete refusal or vomiting. It is probably more important in young than older infants that the caloric intake be disregarded when they are ill. The digestive capacity of the small infant is hardly more than enough to take care of his digestive needs under conditions of health and the digestive capacity is usually markedly decreased in the presence of infection. Ingestion of a full regular diet in such a case almost inevitably leads to vomiting, diarrhea, or both. For practical purposes, we may disregard the caloric value of children in the early stage of their illness.

Maintenance of fluid balance, however, is of the utmost importance in acutely ill children and can be readily achieved. The body of the infant and child is hydrolabile and dehydration may be rapidly induced in the presence of fever, vomiting or diarrhea. The harmful effects of severe dehydration are presented elsewhere.

Ketosis also develops rapidly in acutely ill children because of small reserves of liver glycogen in children. This may be overcome in part by the administration of sweetened fruit juices to sick children, thereby combatting dehydration and supplying additional caloric value at the same time.

The general principles of dietary management of acute illness in children, then, are:

Initial prevention of dehydration and ketosis by a liquid diet, including water, fruit juices, milk (diluted with an equal quantity of water), weak tea, clear broth, and in older children carbonated beverages, as ginger ale, flavored "soda", cola drinks, etc. The child who demands his regular diet may be given small quantities of his regular food.

Soft, easily eaten and digested foods may be given after the first one to three days of illness, as the patient begins to improve, as custards, jello or gelatine, ice cream, junket, toast and cookies.

The regular diet may be offered ordinarily when the patient is allowed out of bed in the case of older children, when permitted out of doors in the case of infants.

Modifications of these rules may be needed to meet special circumstances that arise in different diseases of children. These are indicated under the specific illnesses discussed.

Scarlet Fever.—Scarlet fever is an acute, infectious disease usually involving the naso-pharynx and caused by the hemolytic streptococcus. The infection involves the membranes of the naso-pharynx but occasionally the organism may be disseminated by the circulation of the blood. From the site of infection various toxins are elaborated by the streptococcus and absorbed into the blood. The course is variable in its severity. It occurs most frequently in young children, with the highest seasonal incidence between September and June.

The onset of symptoms is abrupt, with fever, sore throat, headache, and vomiting. The generalized rash appears within one to three days after the onset of symptoms. Examination reveals a

diffusely inflamed pharynx often with petechiae on the soft palate. The rash is diffuse, erythematous and finely papular.

Complications may be early, such as otitis media and adenitis, sinusitis and acute myocarditis; or late complications, such as glomerulonephritis, arthritis and perhaps rheumatic fever.

Diet.—At the onset and for the first two or three days when the patient is acutely ill and complaining of considerable pain in the throat, a fluid diet should be maintained. Cool liquids are generally taken better than are warm liquids and it is advisable to permit only sips, since the ingestion of a large quantity at one time is usually followed by vomiting. Water, fruit juices and milk are taken in the early stages. Sucking cracked ice may relieve some of the pain in the throat. The occasional patient who prefers warm liquids may be offered weak tea and clear broth. If there is a desire for solid food, small quantities of soft foods, such as ice cream, custard, or jello may be given. The patient who requests his regular diet usually refuses it when it is placed in front of him. A gradual return to a regular diet is in order as the patient convalesces.

Pertussis.—Pertussis is an acute infectious disease involving the respiratory tract and caused by *B. pertussis*. The disease occurs epidemically at intervals of two to four years, and is more frequent in densely populated areas. It is more common in young children and occurs throughout the year.

Cough is the most prominent symptom and gradually increases in severity over a period of about ten days to two weeks. It is usually more severe at night. The cough gradually becomes paroxysmal in character with repeated coughing spells in which the patient is unable to catch his breath between coughs, becomes red in the face, and finally expels or swallows a plug of thick tenacious mucus. Occasionally the patient vomits as he expels the mucus and then catches his breath in a typical crowing inspiration known as a "whoop". The cough may be precipitated by emotional disturbances, sudden exposure to cold, tobacco smoke, or physical activity. The duration of the disease is variable, lasting from a few weeks to several months. Complications are otitis media, bronchopneumonia, bronchiectasis, nervous system involvement and malnutrition.

Diet.—Because of the persistent vomiting it is necessary to give the child frequent small feedings. The patient should be fed as often as every one or two hours if vomiting is severe and only small quantities of food should be given. Nutrition may be maintained if high caloric fluids such as egg nog, sweetened fruit juices, malted milk, are given in addition to soft foods which are easily taken, such as custards, ice cream, jello, junket, and pudding.

Measles.—Measles is an acute infectious disease of childhood caused by a virus. The disease occurs most frequently in children and is more frequent in thickly populated areas. Epidemics occur about every second year.

The symptoms at onset are fever, slight cough, coryza, and conjunctivitis. The fever may subside after a day or two though the cough increases in intensity. Koplik's spots appear in

mucous membrane about the third day and fever recurs the fourth or fifth day with the appearance of the rash. The begins on the face and gradually spreads downward over the

Although the patient may be acutely ill for two or three days the appearance of the rash there is a rapid abatement of all symptoms and signs when the rash becomes full blown. Complications are otitis media, bronchopneumonia, and encephalitis.

t.—The diet maintained is similar to that of other acute diseases of children. Fluid intake is most important at the onset there is gradual change to soft foods as the patient begins to live. Return to a full diet is delayed until the patient shows of a return of appetite.

Varicella.—Varicella is an acute contagious disease probably caused by a virus. The disease occurs most frequently in children occurs in epidemic of two to four year intervals. The disease is usually a mild one. Symptoms at the onset are slight fever and are followed in a few hours by the appearance of the typical first macules and then vesicles. Lesions appear on the body first and spread outward in all directions.

t.—The dietary management in varicella does not differ from that used in other contagious diseases.

Mumps.—Mumps is an acute contagious disease caused by a virus. It occurs most frequently in children. It is a systemic disease with most obvious manifestations in the parotid glands.

Symptoms are vague at the onset with fever and malaise, followed in twenty-four hours by the enlargement of one or both parotid glands. Fever generally lasts for two to three days but the parotids remain enlarged for periods varying from seven to fourteen days. There may be considerable pain on chewing or swallowing. Complications are much less common in children than in adults and include orchitis, pancreatitis, and meningo-encephalitis.

t.—It is impossible to predict what an individual child will eat or be able to eat, but solid foods are generally not taken well at the onset because of the pain that occurs with chewing. Sweetened liquids and soft foods cause less distress than those with a sharp acid taste. In other respects, management of the diet parallels that of other contagious diseases.

INFANTILE ECZEMA

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Infantile eczema is an allergic state manifested by moderate to severe lesions of the skin accompanied by itching. The condition is probably due to food allergy but it may be complicated by irritation as well as mechanical irritation of the skin by contact with silk, wool, rough clothing, ammoniacal diaper, seborrhea, local infections, and the constant rubbing and scratching that results in itching. Other predisposing factors are thought to be the low water and sodium chloride content of the infant's skin which increase its irritability. A deficiency of unsaturated fatty acids has been found in patients with infantile eczema by Hansen and his

co-workers. Over-feeding, particularly of fats, may also be a factor since most infants with eczema are well-nourished. However, malnutrition often accompanies the worst case of eczema.

In the young infant, a milk allergy is most frequently the cause of the eczema. Older infants who have been given a more varied diet are often sensitive to egg and wheat as well as to milk. These allergies may not be detectable by ordinary means of skin tests because of the great irritability of the infant's skin. Passive transfer tests may also fail to show this allergy because of the inability of the infant to produce antibodies in any quantity.

Skin lesions in infants characteristically appear on the cheeks, forehead, chin, scalp, occasionally behind the ears, on the arms anteriorly and in the antecubital and popliteal spaces. At times an eruption is present in the diaper area, particularly if there is an ammoniacal diaper in combination with the food allergy. In older children the lesions are usually limited to the antecubital and popliteal spaces, dorsum of the hands, and occasionally about the mouth. Itching is invariably present and may be mild or severe.

The course of the disease is protracted, with remissions and exacerbations. In most instances the condition will spontaneously disappear between the second and third years. A few cases continue to have difficulty until they near puberty.

Diet.—Mild cases of eczema in the *breast fed* infant should be treated by application of lotions or ointments to the affected skin. The infant should not be weaned. If there is no improvement with local skin treatment alone, it is advisable to remove common allergens such as egg and wheat, one at a time, from the mother's diet.

Mild cases of eczema in *artificially fed infants* should be treated by modifications of the milk protein as well as by local skin applications. In some instances, heating the milk in a double boiler for two to three hours may change the protein of the milk sufficiently to remove the offending allergen. If there is no improvement with this regime then a hypo-allergic milk such as S.M.A. hypo-allergic milk either whole liquid milk or whole milk powder should be used. The whole liquid milk is used in formulas in the same proportion as cow's milk would be used. The hypo-allergic milk powder may be reconstituted by the addition of 4 level tablespoonfuls to 8 ounces of water. If these preparations are used in an infant's formula, it may be necessary to increase caloric value of the formula by the addition of Alerdex (S.M.A.) which is a protein-free combination of maltose and dextrans, containing 110 calories per ounce (4 level tablespoonfuls per ounce). Substitutions of goat's milk, either whole or evaporated (Meyenberg) is beneficial in an occasional patient. We have had a greater degree of success in the Pediatric Eczema Clinic of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital, in the use of soy bean preparations, which are valuable as complete substitutes for milk. Several preparations are available:—Mull-soy (The Borden Company), Sobee (Mead-Johnson), Allerteen (American Dietetics Company). In addition, Soyola, (Weyth) an emulsion of soy bean oil which is rich in linoleic acid, an essential unsaturated

acid, may be used to supplement the diet in a dosage of 1 to 2 teaspoonfuls 3 times a day. It is usually added to the milk and may be continued for several months. Another hypo-allergic preparation which may be used with success when soy bean preparations are not taken well is Nutramigen (Mead-Johnson), a preparation of amino acids which has been fortified with milk fat, maltose and minerals. It has been of distinct value in some cases of severe eczema which have not responded to any previous dietary restriction. New foods such as cereals, vegetables, fruits, and eggs should be added to the diet at the customary time but with considerable caution. Each new food should be given at first in a very small quantity for a period of at least one week and no other new food should be given at the same time. The quantity of any particular food may be increased gradually if there is no exacerbation of the eczema. Orange juice and fish liver oils should be discontinued since they are occasionally capable of making the eczema worse. Ascorbic acid and vitamin D in an aqueous base may be substituted.

In moderate and severe cases of eczema in infants almost invariably require a complete removal of milk and replacement with a milk substitute. Mull-soy is a liquid, similar to evaporated milk, and should be diluted with water in a ratio of $\frac{1}{3}$ Mull-soy to $\frac{2}{3}$ water in infants under five months of age, and should be diluted with an equal amount of water in infants over five months of age. Sobee and Allerteen are dispensed in powder form. Sobee is to be reconstituted in a standard dilution of 6 level tablespoonfuls to 7 ounces of water; Allerteen in a standard dilution of 5 level tablespoonfuls to 7 ounces of water. Nutramigen is dispensed as a powder and should be reconstituted to a standard dilution by addition of 1 level teaspoonful of Nutramigen to $1\frac{3}{4}$ ounces of water. The contents of this preparation in the original state and in the diluted state may be found in the following table.

Mull-soy may also be used in place of milk in the preparation of numerous other foods such as puddings, custards, ice cream, mashed potatoes, and corn bread. Some recipes which have been prepared by manufacturers (Borden Co.) are as follows:

MULL-SOY ICE CREAM

1 cup Mull-soy	1 tablespoon water
2 level tablespoons sugar	1 teaspoon vanilla
	1 teaspoon unflavored gelatin

Soak 1 teaspoon gelatin in water for a few minutes. Dissolve over hot water. Add to Mull-Soy and sugar, blending well. Add vanilla and mix well. Place in freezing tray and freeze in automatic refrigerator until mixture reaches mushy stage. Remove from freezing unit and beat until smooth, but not melted. Replace in freezing unit, stirring several times before completely frozen. Serves 3.

Crushed fruits (fresh, canned, or frozen), fruit syrups, or other flavoring agents such as maple, caramel, molasses, coffee, etc., may be added to the above recipe.

TABLE 32. — MILK SUBSTITUTES

Proprietary Name	Percentage Composition						Cal. per Oz.	Cal. Tblsp. per Oz.	Standard Dilution	Diluted Cal. per Oz.	Ash Undiluted		
	Fat	Undiluted Prot.	Carb.	Fat	Prot.	Carb.							
Hypo-Allergic Whole Milk (S. M. A.)				3.5	3.3	4.7			Undiluted	19.5	0.7		
Hypo-Allergic Whole Milk Powder (S.M.A.)	27	26 0	39 0	3.5	3 3	4.7	142	37	4	T2-W4oz.	19 5	6 0	0 7
Evaporated Goat Milk (Meyenberg)	7 2	8 0	8 4	3.5	3 5	4 4	38			1oz.-W1oz.	19	1 6	0 8
Sobee (Mead-Johnson)	19 2	32 0	38 4	2 4	4 0	4 8	130	22	6	T6-W7oz.	16	8 0	1 0
Mull-Soy (Borden)	7 8	6 0	8 9	4 0	3 1	4 5	40				20	2 0	1 0
Allerteen (Am. Dietetics Co.)	30 8	23 1	38 6	4 2	3 2	5 0	165	35	5	T5-W7oz.	22	5 9	0 7
Nutrangen (Mead-Johnson)	18 0	15 0	55 0	2 4	2 0	7 3	132	38	32	T1-W1-4	18	5 0	0 7

RICE PUDDING

1/2 cup Mull-Soy	2 tablespoons sugar
1/2 cup boiling water	1/4 teaspoon salt
1/2 tablespoons uncooked	1/8 teaspoon nutmeg
1/2 white rice, washed	1/4 cup raisins

Combine Mull-Soy and boiling water in top of double boiler. Gradually add rice, stirring constantly. Add sugar, salt, nutmeg and raisins; mix well. Cover and cook over boiling water one and a quarter hours or until rice is tender, stirring occasionally. Makes 4 servings.

MULL-SOY CUSTARD

2 eggs	1/4 teaspoon vanilla
2 tablespoons sugar	3/4 cup Mull-Soy
1/2 teaspoon salt	3/4 cup boiling water
	Nutmeg

Beat eggs slightly. Add sugar, salt, and vanilla. Gradually add Mull-Soy which has been mixed with boiling water, stirring constantly. Strain into 4 custard cups. Sprinkle with nutmeg. Place in pan containing warm water to level of custard in cups. (This helps prevent curdling.) Bake in moderate oven (375° F.) about forty minutes or until knifeblade inserted comes out clean, indicating custard is done. Makes 4 servings.

MASHED POTATOES

Dilute a small quantity of Mull-Soy with an equal quantity of water in which potatoes were boiled. Mash the potatoes, salt and the diluted Mull-Soy, beating until light and smooth.

CORNBREAD

(Contains no milk, egg, or wheat)

1/2 cups cornmeal	1 cup Mull-Soy
1/2 teaspoons salt	1/3 cup shortening, melted
1/2 cup water	3 teaspoons baking powder

Mix cornmeal and salt. Gradually add water, stirring until smooth. Add Mull-Soy and slightly cooled shortening, mixing well blended. Stir in baking powder. Pour into greased 8-inch square pan. Bake in hot oven (450° F.) twenty minutes. Cut into squares; serve hot. Makes six 2-inch squares.

In addition to complete removal of milk, the moderate and severe cases of eczema respond more satisfactorily when egg, wheat, fish, and chocolate are removed from the diet. Foods permitted in the diet are as follows:

Beverage: Pineapple juice or grape juice.

Fruit: Pineapple, apple, apricots, plums.

Cereal: Cornmeal, hominy, Post Toasties, Puffed Rice, cream of rice.

Meat: Lamb, beef, mutton.

Vegetables: Corn for a child of 6 years or older (fresh or canned), asparagus (fresh or canned), lettuce, string beans, carrots.

Permitted—(Continued)

Bread: Rye.

Butter substitute: Salted Crisco.

Fat: Mazola oil.

Flour substitute: Cornstarch, rice flour, rye flour.

Miscellaneous: Karo, apricot jam, molasses, refined brown sugar, salt, unflavored gelatin, hard candy—flavor with peppermint, wintergreen, . . . no soft candy.

1. No foods other than specified can be used. The gravy for the lamb may be thickened with cornstarch. . . not flour.
2. The foods permitted may be eaten in unlimited quantities.
3. Even a minute amount of food not included in the diet, if eaten, may nullify an otherwise successful trial and complicate the solution.
4. Combinations and preparations of the foods included in the diet may be devised by the patient.
5. To prevent constipation, a liberal use of fruits permitted is advisable. In addition, water should be drunk in large quantities and brown sugar on the cereals may be helpful.

Suggestions.—All forms of irritation should be eliminated, such as rubber pants and rubber sheets, irritating powders, soaps and improperly cleansed diapers. The itching and consequent scratching may be relieved in many cases by administration of anti-histamine drugs, such as Benadryl and Pyribenzamine. Lotion, salves and other topical medications must be prescribed to suit the needs of the individual patient. Mechanical restrictions to the diet are needed at times. Chemotherapy and anti-biotics are to be used freely in the presence of respiratory infection, skin infection and other similar complications.

FEBRILE CONDITIONS.

Discussion.—The dietetic management of the febrile patient is sharply divided into diets for fevers of short and prolonged duration.

Until the past quarter of a century, the generally accepted diet therapy for a patient suffering from a disease characterized by fever, was one of partial or complete starvation. Coincident with the work of Coleman and Shaffer in 1907, this stereotyped attitude was revised, and thereafter certain fevers have been well fed where none has been subjected to purposeful undernourishment.

A good understanding of the body requirements in febrile conditions can best be obtained by reference to Typhoid Fever.

The diet for fevers of long duration is a modified typhoid diet indicated. In feeding a fever of short duration, a day or two of subminimal feeding is often instituted. Joslin deprecates the tendency to overfeed patients convalescing from acute toxemias and infections, believing that in so doing a strain is put upon the pancreatic function and so predisposes to diabetes.

A well confirmed and common sense dietary regimen to be instituted in fever has been presented by Gauss. The principles of the diet consist in the division into three stages. First stage: Compensatory

intestinal rest. Second stage: The prescription of easily
ed foods with an indicated caloric value. Third stage: Restor-
of a balanced diet.

First Stage.

8 A.M.	Fruit juice
10 A.M.	Coffee <i>or</i> tea with milk and sugar
12 NOON.	Gruel with milk and sugar
3 P.M.	Ice-cream, custard <i>or</i> junket
6 P.M.	Eggnog, buttermilk <i>or</i> milk
9 P.M.	Consommé, bouillon <i>or</i> broth

Second Stage.

8 A.M.	Fruit juice
	Gruel with cream and sugar
10 A.M.	Eggnog
12 NOON.	Broth
	Boiled rice with butter
	Simple pudding
3 P.M.	Buttermilk, malted milk <i>or</i> milk
6 P.M.	Cream soup
	Soft-cooked egg
	Ice-cream <i>or</i> custard
9 P.M.	Hot milk <i>or</i> cocoa

Third Stage.

8 A.M.	Fruit juice
	Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
	Egg, except fried
	Toast with butter
	Coffee with cream and sugar

Midmorning.

	Milk <i>or</i> cocoa
12 NOON.	Cream soup
	Minced meat
	Puréed vegetable
	Bread with butter
	Simple pudding
	Tea with lemon

Midafternoon.

	Buttermilk, malted milk <i>or</i> milk
6 P.M.	Baked <i>or</i> mashed potato <i>or</i> boiled rice
	Puréed vegetable
	Bread with butter
	Puréed fruit <i>or</i> simple pudding

Bedtime. Hot milk *or* cocoa

NOTE.—The caloric diet for the third stage is subject to much
ation, depending essentially upon the volume of the foodstuffs

utilized. The average servings of the preceding dietary will be about 2500 Calories per diem.

Suggestions.—In the course of treating febrile conditions, it is essential to take recognition of the patient's whims and fancies as well as any possible presenting idiosyncrasies.

The preceding menus can be utilized in such conditions as *whooping cough, influenza, la grippe, acute bronchitis, the exanthemata, etc.*

Particular note should be made that in the preceding menus all of the foods are caloric-bearing with the possible exception of bread.

FERTILITY.

Refer to page 410.

FISSURE-IN-ANO.

Refer to page 503.

FLATULENCE.

JEROME MARKS, M. D.

Discussion.—Flatulence is one of the most common complaints encountered in the practice of medicine. It is to be noticed and observed in races fundamentally of high nervous excitability, among people suffering from excess nervous strain and, additionally, among aërophagics. The incidence of aërophagia is exceedingly small and generally requires care by the neurologist.

It is recognized that flatulence is but a symptom and generally the etiology such as colitis, gall-bladder disease, etc., can readily be determined. On the other hand, a large percentage of cases present no determinable cause except one of a nervous nature.

It has been determined that there is a series of foods which tend to produce or exaggerate flatulence. The institution of a diet in which these foods are omitted will, in the majority of cases, aid in correcting the complained-of symptom. Failing the desired result, a thorough series of stool analyses will often yield enlightening information in respect to foods which are imperfectly digested. In the main, correction of glaringly faulty daily habits, as well as dietary errors, will yield results. Refer to list of Flatulence Producing Foods.

Omit.

Beans, especially dried beans	Nuts
Broccoli	Onions
Brussels sprouts	Pastry and pie
Cabbage	Peppers
Cantaloupe	Pork
Carbonated waters	Preserved and pickled meats
Cauliflower	and fish
Cheese other than cottage	Radishes
or pot cheese	Raisins
Chocolate	Raw fruits

— (Continued)

Condiments	Rich desserts
Corn	Salted foods
Corned beef	Sausages
Cucumbers	Shellfish
Lime	Sparkling wines
Lime	Soda water
Green and red peppers	Soft drinks
Grossly sweet foods	Stews
Onions	Sweets
Salt beverages	Swiss chard
Meat broths	Turnips

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit juice *or* stewed fruit
Whole grained cereal, cooked or prepared, with cream and sugar
Eggs, except fried
Toast *or* rolls with butter
Milk *or* coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Choice: meat, fish, eggs *or* cheese
Choice of cooked vegetables: beets, carrots, spinach, squash,
tomatoes, peas
Small salad with dressing
Bread with butter
Stewed fruit
Milk or tea with lemon

Dinner:

Cream soup
Meat *or* fish
Potato, baked or mashed
Cooked vegetable, choose from luncheon list
Bread with butter
Simple dessert
Coffee with cream and sugar

NOTE.— Butter should be used sparingly in the preceding menu.

Suggestions.—The author has had some success in dealing with cases of marked flatulence by instituting a relative starvation with nothing but liquid for a period of forty-eight to seventy-two hours, followed by the prescription of the foregoing dietary. On the other hand, it has been often observed that the maintenance of dry meals has been of marked benefit. In these cases the required amount of food is taken between meals and not over $\frac{3}{4}$ glass of liquid is allowed meal-time.

The presence of flatulence is very frequently traced to some individual food or group of foods to which the patient has always

exhibited an idiosyncrasy. The determination of these foods and their omission from the diet can frequently obviate the present complaint.

In the study of the mechanics of digestion, it is readily observed that fats tend to delay gastric evacuation. This tardy action is commonly responsible for the complained-of foods repeating the associated gas for hours after their ingestion. Limitation of fats in these cases will prove of benefit. Refer to Foods Highest in Fat. In all cases of flatulence it is also warranted to investigate thoroughly the biliary tract for a possible etiology.

GALL-BLADDER DISEASE.

J. RUSSELL TWISS, M.D.

Discussion.—Disorders of the biliary tract are usually conceded to be the most prevalent causes of indigestion. In the opinion of leading investigators, dietary management is of the greatest importance in the relief of such disorders. There is no longer any justification for an attempt to apply a single type of diet to the many widely divergent types of organic and non-organic disorders which affect the gall-bladder. While dietary management may prove beneficial both in the relief of digestive symptoms and in the prevention of complications, its effectiveness is entirely dependent upon an understanding of the individual patient and the cause of the symptoms. This understanding can be obtained only by careful investigation, the details of which should precede a discussion of dietary factors.

In general, it is first necessary to stress the fact that the liver and extrahepatic biliary tract constitute an extremely complex mechanism which is influenced by many hormonal, vascular, and other factors which seem to be directly or indirectly influenced by the autonomic nervous system. While the control of the rest of the digestive tract by the autonomic nervous system is universally conceded, its relation to the biliary tract has heretofore been so poorly understood that in most cases this fundamental factor has been overlooked.

While it is not necessary to discuss the manifold functions of the liver, a brief review of extrahepatic physiology as outlined by Ivy seems justified, primarily because of the ways in which abnormalities in function may be influenced by dietary means. Bile is being secreted continuously by the liver; during fasting, however, its entrance into the duodenum is largely prevented by the closure of the common duct sphincter. During fasting the bile is diverted into the gall-bladder, which not only concentrates the bile six to ten times, but serves as an equalizer of biliary tract pressure. In response to food, concentrated gall-bladder bile is discharged into the duodenum by the more or less simultaneous relaxation of the common duct sphincter and the contraction of the gall-bladder. After digestion the common duct sphincter again closes and the gall-bladder is refilled with bile. The factors which interfere with this orderly sequence of events and consequently produce symptoms

In some cases pathologic conditions are stasis, infection, and toxic disorders. The mechanism of these will be discussed later.

Diagnostic Investigations.—A detailed history will frequently, in the case of functional disturbances, reveal environmental conditions suggesting a direct relationship to the onset of biliary tract symptoms. Symptoms may be caused by financial worries, unsatisfactory living conditions, or unhappy family situations. One must realize that inability to correct conditions of this kind may completely nullify the effects of any type of medical or surgical treatment.

The cholecystogram has provided indispensable diagnostic findings, particularly since the oral administration of dye by the double-contrast method has been developed by Stewart and Illick. Normal visualization and normal emptying of the gall-bladder mean in most cases a normal gall-bladder, occasionally however normal visualization and emptying may occur with the diseased gall-bladder. A patient having impairment in visualization of the gall-bladder, showing a disturbance in filling or emptying of the gall-bladder, must be subjected to further investigation before arriving at a final diagnosis. While most patients having no visualization of the gall-bladder have definite pathology, Lahey and Jordan have shown that in many cases, in which the gall bladder did not visualize initially, normal function may be restored by medical management.

Biliary tract drainage has proved a valued supplementary method of diagnosis. By this means the disturbances in gastric acidity which are so common in patients with gall-bladder disease may be determined; abnormal findings, however, should be confirmed by the standard test meal. Evidences of functional disorders may be obtained by the response of the gall-bladder to stimulation. The non-contractile gall-bladder is in most cases indicated by the absence of concentrated gall-bladder bile. Microscopic examination furthermore is of value in establishing the diagnosis of stones. Cultures of bile taken under sterile precautions give reliable evidence of infection of biliary tract.

While the diagnosis of stones can be made with considerable accuracy, a diagnosis of biliary tract infection is usually presumptive. However, bacteriologic studies of the duodenal bile obtained by means of the encapsulated Twiss duodenal tube have given accurate evidence of biliary tract infection, 74 of 75 cases having sterile pre-operative drainages proved to have all parts of the biliary tract sterile at operation. Of 28 patients showing positive cultures of significant organisms pre-operatively, 25 showed identical types of organisms at operation. These facts are of significance because most follow-up studies of patients after cholecystectomy have shown satisfactory results only in those having actual infection, stones, or biliary tract obstruction.

Chemical blood studies have proved useful in dietary management to indicate the presence of hypercholesteremia, a metabolic disturbance quite common in biliary tract disease. This may be associated with hypothyroidism, arteriosclerosis, or other conditions outlined by Muller. Elevation of the urea nitrogen or blood sugar may

furthermore give evidence of unsuspected kidney disease or diabetes. Various liver function tests have proved useful in the detection and treatment of liver disease. Biliary tract obstruction and liver pathology are sometimes indicated by an elevation of icterus index and serum bilirubin.

Finally, a few other conditions giving symptoms similar to biliary tract disease should be mentioned. Mucous colitis or spastic constipation may be associated with gall-bladder disease or independently give similar symptoms. Peptic ulcer, gastritis, or pyloric spasm also may present symptoms which are difficult to differentiate from those of gall-bladder disease. Chronic or acute appendicitis always remains a possible etiologic factor, the common association of a diseased gall-bladder and a diseased appendix is well known. Renal pathology may give distention, pain, and other symptoms suggestive of biliary tract disease; the most common conditions are renal calculus, pyelonephritis, and stricture of the ureter. Coronary disease and syphilis must also be kept in mind as possible causes of abdominal pain.

Biliary Dyskinesia.—Actual organic disease of the gall-bladder previously described, should be differentiated from disorders of the gall-bladder due to functional disturbances or dyskinesia, for the description of which we are largely indebted to Westphal and Linder and Sandblom. The disorders are divided into atonic and hypertonic types, *either one of which may be associated with actual infection*.

The **atonic** or flaccid type of gall-bladder is most common in elderly people of sedentary habits, particularly those addicted to overeating. Discomfort of the epigastrium or right upper quadrant is common, as are symptoms of discomfort, gas, and constipation. The cholecystogram shows in these cases an enlarged balloon-shaped shadow, with delayed or slight diminution in size following a fatty meal. Biliary tract drainage usually shows a low gastric acidity and a large amount of moderately concentrated bile following stimulation with olive oil, possibly crystalline sediment suggesting stasis.

The **hypertonic** type of gall-bladder enlargement occurs in the nervous tense type of individual having an imbalance of the autonomic nervous system. This may be associated with gastric hypochlorhydria or with some source of reflex stimulation which causes spasm of the common duct sphincter. In the **hyperacidity** type there is commonly colic, heartburn, and acid eructations, in addition to the indefinite indigestion previously described. The cholecystogram in the absence of infection shows an enlarged shadow with good visualization, most commonly with a delay in emptying. The biliary tract drainage shows a gastric hyperacidity with impaired response to stimulation and at times crystalline elements of stasis. Bacteriologic cultures are usually sterile.

The establishment of the diagnosis of gastric hyperacidity is most important in the initial diagnostic work-up, for it is in this group of patients coming to operation furnish many cases of unsatisfactory results, including the presence of the so-called post-cholecystectomy

come. Following the operation the pains of these patients are aggravated rather than relieved.

The **hypertonic reflex** type of gall-bladder enlargement is associated with some type of excessive stimulation which probably affects primarily the common duct sphincter. This may originate in the central nervous system, as the result of excessive worry, exhaustion, unfavorable environmental conditions. The reflex type is also associated with other evidences of pathology in the abdominal cavity, such as a diseased appendix, pyelonephritis, renal calculus, peptic ulcer. The hypertonic type of enlarged gall-bladders are characterized otherwise by tenderness in the right upper quadrant, which is relieved following biliary tract drainage, and a good visualization of the gall-bladder on cholecystographic studies. There is relatively normal biliary tract drainage except for difficulty in intestinal intubation and the delayed response to stimulation which sometimes results from spasm of the duodenum and common duct sphincter.

Treatment.—The successful treatment of functional disorders is dependent upon a complete and accurate initial diagnostic procedure, in which should be included a detailed history, physical examination, X-ray of the gall-bladder, biliary tract drainage, and such chemical blood tests as are indicated. The differential diagnosis between functional disorders and organic disease is not easy. In many cases functional disorders precede the organic disease, which intervenes by reason of stasis, obstruction, or infection. It is therefore of paramount importance to be sure that the functional disorder has not progressed to the point of organic disease, before making the diagnosis of biliary dyskinesia.

Assuming that organic disease has been ruled out, by the methods outlined under the heading of chronic cholecystitis, we are in a position to discuss the management of biliary dyskinesia of the various types.

In the **atonic** gall bladder group we are dealing in most cases with the traditional "fair, fat, and forty" individuals in whom overeating, obesity, and sedentary habits are prevalent. Stasis of the gall-bladder is first relieved by the "stimulating" type of gall-bladder therapy, which utilizes the principle that the best cholagogue is food, particularly that high in cholesterol and fats. Intermediate feedings of milk are used wherever possible. Diet No. 4 is low in caloric value for the obese; Diet No. 5 high in caloric value for those underweight. These diets of course cannot be used for the occasional patients unable to tolerate fats, or for those having a hypercholesterolemia. These diets are furthermore contraindicated in the presence of cirrhosis of the liver, since it has been proved that fatty infiltration of the liver and consequently cirrhosis may result from the use of a diet high in cholesterol or fat. Medication which is beneficial in this group includes bile salts which are especially indicated for constipation. Dilute hydrochloric acid is frequently beneficial with achlorhydria; olive oil may also aid in the emptying of the gall-bladder. Exercises are useful in building up muscle tone and improving the gen-

eral condition. General hygienic measures should be stressed including regular meals, adequate fluids between meals, good habits, out-of-door exercise and deep breathing.

In the **hypertonic** gall bladder group, the treatment of the patient with the hypertonic hyperacidity type of dyskinesia is the most satisfactory because of the prompt relief of the pain, colic and heartburn which characterize this condition. The diets used in this group are bland with intermediate feedings. Diet No. 3A is a preliminary diet, mostly liquids and starches, while Diet No. 3B is a maintenance diet, to be used after the relief of acute symptoms. Antacids are necessary; among those found useful are aluminum hydroxide gel, magnesium trisilicate, calcined magnesia, bismuth carbonate and calcium carbonate. Sedatives and antispasmodics are also needed; with acute pain after meals, these are best given before meals. Among the sedatives, phenobarbital holds a prominent place. The antispasmodic group includes belladonna, atropine, traspentine, syntropan, Bellergal and many others.

The treatment of the hypertonic reflex gall bladder patient is similar to that outlined for the hyperacidity patients. In the reflex group however, the initial diagnostic work-up is directed toward finding, as far as possible, the source of the reflex stimulation which is causing the digestive symptoms. If cerebral in origin, an explanation of the causative situation may be of assistance. The settlement of marital difficulties, the change of a job, the relief from financial worries or excessive responsibilities, taking a vacation—any of these may have therapeutic value far beyond that of medicine. The therapeutic regimen should furthermore take into consideration unhygienic habits such as rapid eating, rushing after eating, hurry worry, inadequate fluid intake, neglected constipation. If the reflex source of irritation lies within the abdominal cavity, it may be corrected by the removal of a diseased appendix, renal calculus or by the successful treatment of a spastic irritable colon.

Metabolic Disorders.—The importance of metabolic disorders is stressed by the fact that the previously-held concept that diseases of the gall bladder was in most cases infectious in origin has been entirely destroyed by evidence from the physiological and bacteriological laboratories, as well as the investigations of surgeons and internists. These extensive studies have shown in only a small proportion of the gall-bladders coming to operation the presence of infection. It should be stressed, however, that only the presence of bacterial infection can be established with methods now generally available; the status of virus infections of the biliary tract must be further investigated.

An example of a metabolic disorder affecting the biliary tract is the solitary metabolic gall stone, found without any evidence of infection either upon bacteriological or pathological studies. Biliary dyskinesia may have played an important part in its formation, by inducing biliary stasis. As shown by Sweet, cholesterol in bile is held in colloidal suspension by the bile salts, a disproportion between the constituents may result in the precipitation of stones. High blood

erol has been shown by Twiss and Barnard to be associated with high cholesterol of the bile; it is therefore apparent that any condition which tends to raise the cholesterol content of the blood is of recognition.

Cholesterol is the main, if not the sole constituent of most gall

The cholesterol of the body is of exogenous and endogenous origin; the latter is derived from the destruction of tissues of the

The exogenous cholesterol is derived from food; the foods rich in cholesterol are eggs and inner organs such as liver, kidneys, and sweetbreads. Cholesterol of vegetable origin is not absorbed by the body. The chief causes of hypercholesterolemia are starvation, pregnancy, missed meals, hypothyroidism, and the adoption of a diet high in cholesterol and fats. Conditions of biliary obstruction are present to a maximum extent during the later months of pregnancy; at this time the blood cholesterol is at its height. It is probable that a large proportion of gall stones are formed at this time, a fact substantiated by statistical studies which show that women outnumber the men coming to operation for gall bladder disease by as much as 20 to 1.

The treatment of metabolic disorders of the biliary tract is dependent upon recognition of such conditions as hypercholesterolemia and hypothyroidism. With the former condition a low cholesterol diet, such as Diet No. 2, is indicated. In this way the blood cholesterol can in many cases be reduced, probably with less likelihood of stone formation, fatty infiltration of the liver, and cirrhosis. The low cholesterol and low fat diet is also indicated in any case of active infection of the gall-bladder, for the stimulation of the gall-bladder at this time is painful and productive of symptoms. Likewise the obstructions of the cystic duct and the common duct are indications for the use of these diets, for they protect the obstructive gall-bladder from excessive contraction which results primarily from the foods rich in fats and cholesterol. It is furthermore a well known fact that a patient with jaundice does better on the low fat diet. Inasmuch as common duct obstruction is also associated with a hypercholesterolemia, this also affords a good reason for the use of these diets.

ORGANIC DISEASE OF THE BILIARY TRACT.

Discussion.—For reasons previously stated, it is impossible to differentiate accurately organic disease from functional disorders and metabolic disorders; any one or any combination of these conditions may be found in any given patient. A complete diagnostic investigation, however, serves to indicate the facts in the individual case, and subsequent treatment then becomes self evident.

Chronic Cholecystitis.—Chronic non-calculus cholecystitis is characterized by the presence of actual infection of the biliary tract, the infection may be active or quiescent. The presence of a virus infection cannot be demonstrated by readily available means at the present time. The presence of bacterial infection can be determined with a high degree of accuracy, however, by careful non-surgical examination of the biliary tract, collecting specimens of bile under ster-

ile precautions. As a matter of fact, this furnishes the only positive evidence of biliary tract infection. X-ray examination only give confirmatory evidence by faint visualization or no visualization of the gall-bladder, both of which can be found with actual infection of the biliary tract.

The symptoms of chronic cholecystitis are pain, usually prolonged, dull, aching, constant, or intermittent. Colic most commonly occurs with stones. The pain is apt to be aggravated by food, intolerance to fats and eggs and fried foods is common. Low grade fever and tenderness in the right upper quadrant are prevalent. Discomfort after meals and being "afraid to eat" are characteristic. Weakness, malaise, and anemia are more common when the disease has progressed to the bile ducts and liver. X-rays reveal a faint visualization of the gall-bladder, or no visualization if there is cystic duct occlusion. Biliary tract drainage may show no contracted gall-bladder bile; cultures of bile are usually reported positive for colon bacillus or streptococcus. Blood chemistry may give evidence of common duct obstruction or liver damage.

Once the diagnosis of infectious cholecystitis is established, surgery is indicated at the earliest possible time. Temporizing with these patients, using dietary treatment and medicine and drainage, is never justified, even if there is temporary relief of symptoms. All experience has shown that there is no such thing as an effective biliary antiseptic, even the sulfonamides, streptomycin and penicillin have proved ineffective in practically all cases. Progressive disease is inevitable without early surgery; the infection of the gall-bladder followed in the course of time by involvement of the bile ducts, pancreas, and liver. With this there is increasing morbidity, disability and a higher operative mortality. In those patients coming to operation, proper pre-operative preparation is essential.

Where operation is contraindicated or refused, medical therapy is sometimes a necessity. In this case the low cholesterol and low fat diets are used, either No. 1 or No. 2. Bile salts may be of some assistance in cases of catarrh of the bile ducts; however, they have no effect in promoting the emptying of the gall-bladder. General hygienic measures and vitamins are indicated. The removal of foci of infection is beneficial.

Acute Cholecystitis.—With few exceptions, this condition is an acute exacerbation of a chronic infection, usually with stones. Contrary to previous theory, there is in the majority of cases no evidence of acute bacterial infection of the gall-bladder at operation, or bacteriological and pathological examinations. The history is longstanding and that of a chronic cholecystitis, sometime with recurrent colic, chills, fever, and anemia. Physical findings of tenderness and rigidity of the right upper quadrant are present. Care must be taken to differentiate pancreatitis, coronary disease, and perforation of the gastrointestinal tract.

Acute cholecystitis is a surgical condition; operation is indicated as soon as the patient is properly prepared. The use of intravenous fluids is essential, 5 per cent glucose and protein hydrolysate

d. The parenteral use of vitamin B complex, ascorbic acid, and vitamin K are desirable in most cases. For those not having nausea or vomiting, a high protein diet (No. 6) is indicated. Chemical studies should be done before operation to insure adequate liver function. The lack of observance of the principles outlined has led to result in a much higher mortality rate.

Cholelithiasis.—Stones may form as a result of stasis and biliary disturbances, or they may occur with infection and obstruction. While some gall stones are "silent", the majority are associated with the symptoms of gall bladder disease, the severity of which depends upon the location of the stones and the degree of any associated obstruction or infection. Associated symptoms of obstruction or infection include nausea, vomiting, jaundice, dark urine and light colored stools. Between acute attacks there is persistent indigestion, with discomfort and tenderness of the right upper quadrant in most cases.

The diagnosis of cholelithiasis is most commonly made by radiological examination. Stones in the gall-bladder frequently result in visualization of the gall-bladder, otherwise cholesterol stones give negative shadows and calcified stones positive shadows. Biliary tract drainage may give microscopic evidence of stones on the examination of the biliary sediment, or positive cultures of bile taken under sterile precautions. Chemical blood examinations give evidence of common duct obstruction, if present, by the presence of jaundice and elevation of the blood cholesterol and the alkaline phosphatase.

The treatment of cholelithiasis, like that of the infectious cholecystitis and cholangitis with which it is frequently associated, is surgical. The prompt relief of common duct obstruction is essential, for the purpose of preventing permanent liver damage. Where the condition is not acute, a prolonged period of building the patient up with a diet high in proteins and carbohydrates is necessary. Vitamin supplements are needed. Before operation intravenous glucose and electrolytes are beneficial.

Malignancies.—Malignancies of the biliary tract are by no means rare. They are unfortunately seldom diagnosed until so far progressed that relief by any means is impossible; they are usually an incidental finding at operation. The most common locations are in the bile ducts, the head of the pancreas and the gall bladder. The gall-stones associated with the biliary tract constitute another argument in favor of operation once the diagnosis of cholelithiasis is established. The symptoms of malignancy are those described for chronic cholecystitis and cholelithiasis; in addition, however, there are certain significant symptoms and findings. Progressive and persistent pain is suggestive, especially if associated with loss of weight and strength, anemia, and anorexia.

Jaundice, chills and fever may occur as the result of infection and obstruction. Physical examination reveals emaciation, cachexia and tenderness in most cases, with at times presence of hard irregular masses in the right upper quadrant of liver.

X-ray examinations in patients with malignancies may show the presence of stones, or no visualization of the gall-bladder. Biliary tract drainage may show no concentrated gall-bladder. In the presence of blood in the biliary sediment, or positive culture. In the presence of jaundice the complete obstruction of the common bile duct which occurs only with malignancies is indicated by the failure of bile on biliary tract drainage, provided the location of the tumor in the duodenum is confirmed by fluoroscopic examination.

The treatment of malignancies of the biliary tract is of a purely surgical. Although in most cases with metastases nothing can be accomplished, nevertheless operation is indicated as it may have great palliative value in the relief of such distressing symptoms as jaundice, nausea, vomiting and pruritis. Even though these symptoms may not be present at the time of operation, they might occur later as the result of progressive obstruction which may be prevented by a short-circuiting operation. Diet No. 6 is indicated before surgery, with such supportive measures as are indicated.

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DIFFERENTIAL DIETS IN BILIARY TRACT DISEASE.

Discussion.—To formulate a diet based upon the needs of the patient, it is necessary to consider briefly the action of the various types of food upon the biliary tract.

Carbohydrates are conceded to be the most easily digested type of food, the first to leave the stomach, least irritating to the duodenum and the least stimulating to the gall-bladder and liver. Carbohydrates are furthermore essential for building the glycogen reserve and protecting the proteins of the liver, being particularly indicated in cases of liver damage and before operation. Sugars are forced to the limit of tolerance under these circumstances. A high carbohydrate diet is used to provide weight, and to assist in fat metabolism.

ent investigations have shown the value of protein in liver disease, where the protein metabolism of the liver cell is of vital importance in preserving its integrity and multiple functions. A high intake of both proteins and carbohydrates is indicated in all cases of liver disease. If the patient is unable to tolerate food by mouth, intravenous glucose and protein hydrolysates are given. Even when there are some patients with gastric hyperacidity who do not tolerate proteins well, an effort is made in all cases to provide at least 50 to 100 grams of protein daily in the diet. The use of protein hydrolysate by mouth in cases of peptic ulcer and gastric hyperacidity has recently received considerable attention.

Fats are known to be the least digestible type of food, the most likely to cause symptoms in patients having disorders of the liver or gall-bladder. With a deficient amount of duodenal bile or pancreatic ferments the fats are poorly emulsified and absorbed. The digestion of fats (especially those of egg-yolk, cream and olive oil) on the action of the gall-bladder is well known. It is therefore obvious that fats should be limited in conditions in which there is obstruction of the common or cystic ducts, inflammation of the gall-bladder, liver disease; or liver damage.

On the other hand, the patient having an atonic gall-bladder or chronic cholecystitis may well benefit by a liberal amount of fats in the diet, particularly cream and butter. It is the consensus of opinion at present that a moderate amount of fat is permissible in the gall-bladder diet unless the patient is unable to tolerate the fat or there is a definite contraindication to its use. Fats and foods high in cholesterol are far more effective cholagogues than commercial preparations of bile salts.

Foods containing large amounts of cholesterol are contraindicated in patients with hypercholesterolemia, cholelithiasis, active infection of the gall-bladder, or cystic duct obstruction. The reason for this is the well-known power of the foods high in cholesterol, such as egg-yolk, to cause contraction of the gall-bladder. Limitation of the cholesterol supply has been found in several hundred patients to have a favorable effect upon hypercholesterolemia and to increase the amount of cholesterol excreted in the bile. A list of the foods high in cholesterol is to be found elsewhere (page 173). Rehfuess found the number of cholesterol stones in the gall-bladder to be increased following an increase in blood cholesterol. The use of a low-cholesterol diet gives relief from pain and colic in conditions of obstruction or inflammation of the gall-bladder. It has been furthermore shown by Page that the ingestion of fats results in increased absorption of cholesterol, therefore in the low-cholesterol diets fats are also reduced. Plant sterols or phytosterols are allowed in the low-cholesterol diets because it has been demonstrated that these are not absorbed (Schoenheimer).

Finally, attention should be directed to the fact that diets high in cholesterol have been shown experimentally to tend toward infiltration of the liver, especially if the diet is low in lipotropic substances.

The possibility must not be forgotten of producing vitamin A and D deficiencies with the low-cholesterol and low-fat diets, in that there is elimination of fats, cream, eggs, and inner organs such as liver and kidneys. Common symptoms of vitamin A deficiency include malnutrition, sterility, impaired vision, a susceptibility to infections and nervous disorders. The addition of vitamins A and D, preferably in concentrated form, is indicated with the low-cholesterol diets.

The indications for the use of the differential diets are best furnished by a complete initial diagnostic work-up, which should include whenever possible in addition to the cholecystogram a gall bladder drainage, a determination of the gastric acidity, an icterus index determination, and a blood cholesterol. On the basis of these findings, patients are classified and have prescribed for them one of the three groups of diets which follow.

In the first group are the low-cholesterol and low-fat diets for patients with hypercholesterolemia, cholelithiasis, fat intolerance, cystic duct obstruction, a non-functioning gall-bladder (as shown by lack of visualization in the Roentgen-ray and no concentrated shadow being obtained on biliary tract drainage), or active biliary tract infection. These diets are also used following cholecystectomy. This group includes Diet No. 1 for patients who are overweight and Diet No. 2, differing only in being high-caloric, is for patients with recent loss of weight or those suffering from malnutrition.

The second group of diets, Nos. 3A and 3B, are modified Sippy diets with interval feedings. These are used for patients with a hypertonic gall-bladder, characterized by colic, associated with reflex disturbances or gastric hyperacidity. Diet No. 3A is used at the beginning of treatment, or in patients with an associated peptic ulcer or duodenitis. Diet No. 3B is more of a maintenance diet to which meat has been added.

The third group of diets, Nos. 4 and 5, are relatively high in calories and cholesterol. These diets will stimulate emptying of the gall bladder, and are for the purpose of relieving stasis and obviating as far as possible the consequent likelihood of stone formation and infection. The indications for these diets are a functioning gall bladder of the enlarged hypotonic or atonic type, which shows a delayed or only partial evacuation in the cholecystogram, with no response to magnesium sulfate stimulation on biliary tract drainage. The contraindications to the use of these diets are hypercholesterolemia, cholelithiasis, a non-functioning gall-bladder or active infection of the gall-bladder. Diet No. 4 is low-caloric for obese patients. Diet No. 5 is high in caloric value, for those who are underweight.

Diet No. 6 is used in cases of liver damage, of toxic or infectious origin, cirrhosis of the liver, or for jaundice associated with chronic cholecystitis or cholelithiasis. This diet is also used for obstructive jaundice due to pancreatitis, malignancy, or stone. In general liver damage demands the use of a high-caloric, high protein and high-carbohydrate diet with interval feedings; in acute conditions this is added all the sugar the patient can tolerate. Fat is eliminated as far as practicable.

INDICATIONS FOR USE OF THE GALL-BLADDER DIETS.

*Low-lipid Diets.***Diet No. 1.**

Characteristics: Low cholesterol and fat, low caloric
 Indications: Fat intolerance, cystic duct obstruction
 Active Infection of the gall-bladder or ducts
 Hypercholesterolemia, cholelithiasis
 Obesity

Diet No. 2.

Characteristics: Low cholesterol and fat, high caloric
 Indications: As for Diet No. 1, except for
 Malnutrition, loss of weight

*Antacid Diets.***Diet No. 3A.**

Characteristics: Bland antacid
 Indications: Initial treatment in
 Gastric hyperacidity, pylorospasm
 Duodenitis
 Functional disturbances of the biliary tract with colic

Diet No. 3B.

Characteristics: As for Diet No. 3A
 A maintenance diet for moderately severe cases, or to
 follow Diet No. 3A after improvement in symptoms

*High-lipid Diets.***Diet No. 4.**

Characteristics: Relatively high cholesterol, moderate fat, low caloric
 Indications: Functionally impaired or atonic gall-bladder with
 biliary stasis
 Obesity
 Contraindications: Fat intolerance or cystic duct obstruction
 Active infection of the biliary tract or liver damage
 Hypercholesterolemia or cholelithiasis

Diet No. 5.

Characteristics: Relatively high cholesterol, moderate fat, high caloric
 Indications: As in Diet No. 4, except for
 Malnutrition, loss of weight

Diet No. 6.

Characteristics: High protein, high carbohydrate, moderate fat
 Indications: Hepatitis, acute and chronic
 Jaundice, all types except hemolytic
 Cirrhosis of liver
 Preoperative patients with severe dehydration or
 malnutrition

Foods Prohibited in All Diets.

Fried foods, fresh pork, shellfish, thickened gravies
 All rich and highly seasoned foods
 Condiments, spiced and pickled foods, salad dressings
 Heavy cheeses, nuts, olives
 Pies, pastries, chocolate
 Alcohol and carbonated drinks
 Roughage, as cabbage, cauliflower, corn, Brussels sprouts, cucumbers,
 bran

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

(Form for patient's use with the gall-bladder diets.)

Meals:

Foods should be taken in small amounts and at regular intervals, rather than in large amounts infrequently and irregularly. Food must be chewed carefully, and must not be hurried.

Fluids:

The total fluid intake for twenty-four hours should be at least 2 quarts (8 glasses). Water is to be taken freely before breakfast and between meals, sparingly with meals.

Relaxation:

An adequate amount of rest is essential for the relief of digestive symptoms. Nervous and physical exhaustion may be prevented by the avoidance of strenuous or unduly prolonged physical or mental exertion, hurry, worry, or the assumption of too many responsibilities. An hour's rest, preferably lying down, should be taken whenever possible after the midday meal. If this is not practical, the rest should be taken before the evening meal.

Sleep:

At least eight or nine hours' unbroken sleep will aid symptoms and improve the general health and resistance.

Aids in sleeping are (1) a hot drink at bedtime; (2) a warm bath at bedtime for fifteen minutes; (3) the avoidance of (a) undue fatigue; (b) excitement in the evening; (c) fluids after the evening meal; (4) an enema if there has been no bowel movement during the day.

If these measures are not effective in promoting sleep, this fact should be reported.

Elimination:

At least one bowel movement should be encouraged daily, preferably on rising or after breakfast.

Aids to elimination are:

(1) Measures which promote normal stool formation:

- (a) Adequate fluids between meals.
- (b) Adequate non-irritating bulk, as well-cooked vegetables or fruits, dark cereals, whole grain products.

(2) Unless otherwise prescribed, the avoidance of intestinal irritants such as bran, skins, seeds, cabbage, partially cooked foods, raw fruits and raw vegetables.

Aids to elimination are:

- (3) The avoidance of measures which cause colonic spasm:
 - (a) Constant hurry.
 - (b) Worry.
 - (c) Undue fatigue.
 - (d) Loss of sleep.
 - (e) Nervousness and irritability.

nation:—(Continued.)

- (4) Increasing the intake of vitamin B, which is found in whole grain cereals, yeast, etc.

Persistent constipation not responding to the measures described should be reported for the purpose of obtaining further measures of relief.

ise:

An adequate amount of daily outdoor exercise is essential to good health. At least an hour of fresh air and sunshine is desirable daily. A brisk walk of 20 to 40 city blocks (1 to 2 miles), breathing deeply, will aid digestion and improve the general health. For the more vigorous, outdoor forms of recreation such as golf, tennis, and riding are frequently beneficial. Care must be taken, however, to avoid any exertion which causes shortness of breath, pain, discomfort or exhaustion.

Keep These Instructions and Read Them Over Once a Month!

Diet No. 1

(LOW CHOLESTEROL AND FAT, LOW CALORIC)

akfast:

ruit Juice: Orange, grapefruit, or pineapple juice, 1 glass.

OR

uits: Stewed or canned apricots, cherries, peaches or pears (without syrup) $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

rcals: Oatmeal, cornmeal, Pablum, Puffed Rice or Puffed Wheat, Triscuit, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup, with milk and not more than a half teaspoonful of sugar.

read: Whole wheat or white bread, $\frac{1}{2}$ slice or $\frac{1}{2}$ muffin or soft roll, toasted. With a half square of butter.

verage: Cal-C-Tose, milk (with top cream removed). Coffee, coffee substitutes, or weak tea, with milk and one lump or one level teaspoonful of sugar.

cheon or Supper:

alad: Lettuce with cooked vegetables as carrots, string beans, beets, peas, tomato, pear or pineapple. Vinegar or lemon juice only.

OR

ndwich: Whole wheat bread, thinly buttered, with plain cheese, cream cheese or lean meat as roast beef.

read: With salad a half slice of whole wheat or white bread, preferably toasted, thinly buttered.

dessert: Stewed or canned fruit as for breakfast, junket, gelatine, apple sauce, or water ice.

verage: Glass of milk, buttermilk or weak tea, with milk and 1 lump or 1 level teaspoonful of sugar.

ier:

oup: Broth, consommé or bouillon, one small cup.

eat: Chicken; roast, broiled or boiled. Beef; lean round, sirloin or roast. Lamb; chops or roast. Without visible fat.

OR

sh: Any lean fish not fried as: cod, flounder, haddock, halibut, perch, whiting, bass.

vegetables: Two cooked, green or colored, vegetables as for lunch (prepared without butter).

read: As for luncheon.

Diet No. 2

(LOW CHOLESTEROL AND FAT, HIGH CALORIC)

*Breakfast:**Fruit Juice:* Orange, grapefruit, pineapple, or prune juice, ~~served~~ if desired.

OR

Fruits: Apple sauce, baked apple, or sliced banana, with cream sugar.*Cereals:* Shredded wheat (2 biscuits), Wheat Flakes, Corn Flakes, Rice Flakes, Rice or Wheat Krispies, with milk and sugar. may be added if desired. Or cooked as: Ralston, Cream of Wheat, Hominy, boiled rice, cream of barley, or farina, with cream sugar.*Bread:* Whole wheat or white bread, toasted, 2 slices, with one square of butter, jam, jelly or marmalade if desired.*Waffles:* Waffles with syrup or honey may be substituted for bread 2 or 3 times a week.*Beverages:* Coffee, Sanka coffee, Kaffee Hag, or Postum with a tablespoonful of cream and 2 lumps of sugar. Weak tea with cream sugar or one glass of milk.*Luncheon or Supper:**Juices:* Tomato, pineapple, or vegetable juice without seasoning.

OR

Soups: Creamed soups made with milk, or vegetable soups with barley, okra, rice, macaroni, spaghetti or vermicelli.*Meat:* Lean meat as: roast lamb, roast beef or steak.*Sandwich:* Whole wheat or white bread, toasted, with roast beef, roast lamb, ham, plain cheese, jelly, etc.

OR

Salad: Lettuce with cooked carrots, string beans, beets, peas, tomatoes or pineapple. With French dressing, lemon juice or vinegar. With cracker if desired.

OR

Vegetables: Potatoes: mashed, baked, or boiled. Two green or colored vegetables as: carrots, wax or string beans, asparagus, beets, broccolis, greens, cauliflower (crown part only), young lima beans, peas, lentils, mushrooms, okra, squash, turnips, stewed tomatoes, vegetable marrow.*Bread:* Whole wheat, white bread (2 slices) or rolls, toasted with single square of butter may be taken with the vegetables. Jelly or jam if desired.*Dessert:* Bananas, baked or fresh with milk and sugar. Cake, pudding, sponge or cup. Stewed or canned fruits as: apricots, peaches, pears. Apple sauce or baked apple with milk. Puddings: tapioca, rice, bread, cornstarch. Junket, Jell-O, gelatine.*Beverage:* Glass of milk or weak tea, with milk and 2 lumps of sugar.*Dinner:**Juice or Soups:* As for luncheon.*Meat:* (Meat or fish should be taken once daily). Roast beef, steak, tenderloin, sirloin, or round. Lamb chops or roast. Chicken, turkey, chopped meat. (Avoid fats and fried meats).

OR

Fish: Bass, blackfish, bluefish, cod, flounder, haddock, halibut, salmon, perch, weakfish, whitefish, or boiled salmon. Served with lemon juice.*Vegetables:* One starch and 2 green or colored vegetables. Potatoes: mashed, baked or boiled. Or macaroni, spaghetti or rice. With green or colored vegetables as listed for luncheon.*Bread:* As for luncheon.

et: As for luncheon.

age: Glass of milk, buttermilk or weak tea with milk and 2 lumps of sugar.

l: Cal-C-Tose or Hemo, milk, malted milk, Coco-malt or Ovaltine. Whenever possible a tablespoonful of dextrose or lactose should be added. With toast, bread sticks or zwieback.

As at 10 A.M.

As at 10 A.M.

One of each of the above groups should be taken; foods listed first are preferable. If there are digestive disturbances, all salads, raw fruits and raw vegetables should be omitted.

Eggs and cream except as ordered. Fats, fried foods, greases, oils, pork, veal, thickened gravies. Inner organs as: liver, kidneys, sweetbreads, brains. All rich and highly seasoned foods, condiments. Roughage as: cabbage, corn cucumbers, celery, Brussels sprouts, raw apples, bran. Pies, pastries, chocolate. Alcohol and tobacco in moderation only.

This diet is low in fat and therefore deficient in Vitamins A and D, an adequate amount of which is necessary for the maintenance of good health. In order to correct this deficiency one of the multiple vitamin capsules is advised.

Diet No. 3A

(BLAND HYPERACIDITY DIET WITH INTERMEDIATE FEEDINGS)

fast: (8 A.M.)

its: Canned or stewed apricots, peaches or pears.

als: Cooked as: oatmeal, Ralston, farina or cream of wheat; or prepared as: Puffed Rice or Puffed Wheat, with 2 tablespoonfuls of cream and $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoonful of sugar.

gs: One soft boiled or poached with $\frac{1}{2}$ portion of butter as desired.

ad: White or whole wheat bread, zwieback or soft rolls, toasted with one square of butter.

verages: Milk, malted milk or ovaltine. Hemo or Cal-C-Tose may be added to milk for additional vitamins.

heon and Supper: (12 NOON and 6 P.M.)

gs: Soft boiled, coddled or poached with $\frac{1}{2}$ square butter.

getables: 1 potato; boiled, baked or mashed, with $\frac{1}{2}$ square of butter or a tablespoonful of cream. Or 1 cup of rice, steamed, with cream or butter. 2 green or colored vegetables, pureed or creamed as: carrots, asparagus tips, beets, string or young lima beans, peas, beet greens, spinach, squash, turnips or avocado (two tablespoonfuls). Pureed canned vegetables as Clapps or Gerbers are recommended.

ead: As for breakfast.

ssert: Stewed or canned fruits as: apricots, peaches or pears (2 tablespoonfuls). Baked banana, ice cream, soufflés, junket, Jell-O, custard, cornstarch or tapioca pudding. Boiled rice with cream and $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoonful of sugar.

verages: Milk, buttermilk, Ovaltine or Coco-malt, 1 glass.

M: Milk, malted milk, buttermilk or Ovaltine. Cal-C-Tose or Hemo, 1 teaspoonful, may be added to a glass of milk twice daily.

M: As at 10 A.M.

M: As at 10 A.M.

M: As at 10 A.M.

M: As at 10 A.M.

Feedings every two hours are essential.

D: Fruit juices, all sweet, sour and acid drinks and foods. Soups, bouillon, sauces, gravies, condiments. Meats, fish, shellfish, fats, fried foods. Hashed, pickled, salted and smoked foods. Rich and highly seasoned foods, pies, cakes, candies, pastries. Salads, raw

Avoid—(Continued)

fruits, and raw vegetables. Nuts, dates, figs, olives, salt and pepper at table. Tea, coffee, coffee substitutes, chocolate, cocoa. Range as: bran, whole wheat, apples, cabbage, Brussels sprouts, corn, onions. Alcohol and smoking.

Note: This restricted diet is temporary and is deficient in vitamins. In order to correct this deficiency, one of the vitamin preparations should be taken.

Diet No. 3B**(BLAND HYPERACIDITY MAINTENANCE DIET)****Breakfast: (8 A.M.)**

Fruits: Stewed or canned fruits, apple sauce.

Cereals: Cooked gruel: Oatmeal, farina, Cream of Wheat, rice, rolled oats. Prepared: Puffed rice, Puffed Wheat, or Corn Flakes. 1 cup with 2 tablespoonfuls of cream and a half teaspoonful of salt.

Eggs: One soft boiled or poached egg with a half square of butter and a small pinch of salt.

Bread: Whole wheat, white bread, 1 slice, or soft roll toasted, with half portion of butter.

Beverage: Milk or malted milk, 1 glass. If there are no digestive symptoms, 1 cup of Postum or weak tea, with a tablespoonful of cream and 1 lump of sugar.

Luncheon or Supper: (12 NOON or 6 P.M.)

Juices: Tomato or other vegetable juice (without seasoning).

Sandwich: White or whole wheat bread, preferably toasted, with roast beef, roast lamb, plain cheese or jelly.

OR

Vegetable Plate: One poached egg with two or three green or colored vegetables as: carrots, beets, asparagus tips, mushrooms, squash, beans, peas or vegetable marrow.

Bread: As for breakfast.

Dessert: Stewed or canned fruits as: pears, apricots or peaches. Baked apple (without skin) or apple sauce. Jell-O, gelatin, custard, junket. Puddings as: cornstarch, rice, tapioca. Ice cream, sherbets. Baked bananas.

Beverages: One glass of milk, malted milk, Ovaltine, or Cal-C-Tose.

Dinner: (12 NOON or 6 P.M.)

Juices: Tomato or other vegetable juice (without seasoning).

Meat: (Meat or fish once daily). Chopped meat, roast beef, roast lamb, lamb chops, chicken, other than fried. Turkey.

OR

Fish: (Fish should not be taken more than two or three times a week). Lean fish, baked, boiled, broiled or steamed as: cod, flounder, haddock, halibut or perch.

Eggs: If eggs have not been taken at the other meals, two soft boiled or poached eggs may be substituted for the meat or fish.

Vegetables: One potato, mashed, baked or boiled, or starches as macaroni, rice or spaghetti may be occasionally substituted. With one to two green or colored vegetables as: asparagus, beets, carrots, mushrooms, okra, pumpkin, squash, spinach, wax beans, tomatoes, green peas, vegetable marrow.

Dessert: As for luncheon.

Beverage: As for luncheon.

10 A.M. Milk, Cal-C-Tose, Coco-malt, or buttermilk, one glass. With one egg if desired.

4 P.M. As at 10 A.M.

10 P.M. As at 10 A.M.

One of each of the above groups should be taken. Those listed first are preferable. The other foods may be taken occasionally for variety. If there are digestive disturbances, all salads, raw fruits and raw vegetables should be omitted.

Fats, fried foods, greases, thickened gravies, oils, pork, veal. Eggs, cream, and foods prepared from these. Inner organs as: liver, kidney, sweetbreads, brains. Nuts, avocado, olives, olive oil, salad dressings. Starchy foods as: bread, potatoes, macaroni, spaghetti. All rich and highly seasoned foods. Pies, cakes, pastries, candies, chocolate. Roughage as: cabbage, Brussels sprouts, raw apples, celery, cucumbers, bran. Pickled, smoked and salted foods. Condiments. Alcohol and smoking must be avoided.

One multiple vitamin capsule should be taken daily, after breakfast.

Diet No. 4

(MODERATE CHOLESTEROL AND FAT, LOW CALORIC)

fast:

fruit Juice: Orange, grapefruit, or pineapple juice, 1 glass.

OR

fruit: Stewed or canned apricots, cherries, peaches or pears. Without syrup ($\frac{1}{2}$ cup).

eggs: One soft boiled egg with a quarter square of butter and a small pinch of salt.

OR

cereals: Oatmeal, Puffed Rice, Puffed Wheat or Triscuit, with milk and $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoonful of sugar. May be substituted for egg 2 or 3 times a week.

bread: Whole wheat, white bread, toasted, $\frac{1}{2}$ slice, with a half square of butter.

beverage: Ovaltine or whole milk with Hemo or Cal-C-Tose, 1 glass. Coffee, tea, or Postum with 1 lump of sugar and 1 tablespoonful of cream.

luncheon or Supper:

drinks: Tomato or pineapple juice, a small glass.

OR

broth: Bouillon, consommé or clear broth, 1 cup.

vegetables: Egg, cooked carrots, string beans, beets, peas, tomato, pear, or pineapple, with lemon juice or vinegar.

OR

eggs: Two soft boiled or poached eggs with a half square of butter and a small pinch of salt may be taken once daily.

OR

vegetables: Vegetable plate, 2 green or colored vegetables, with an egg if desired.

bread: Whole wheat or white bread, toasted, $\frac{1}{2}$ slice with $\frac{1}{2}$ square of butter.

desserts: Stewed or canned fruits as for breakfast. Custard, junket, gelatine, apple sauce or water ice.

beverage: Whole milk, 1 glass.

OR

drinks: Tomato, vegetable, or pineapple juice, 1 glass.

OR

broth: Bouillon, consommé or clear broth, 1 cup.

meats: Chicken, other than fried. Beef; round, sirloin or roast. Liver, kidneys, sweetbreads or brains are to be taken at least 3 times a week.

OR

fish: Lean fish (not fried) as: cod, flounder, haddock, halibut, perch, whiting, bass, may be taken 2 or 3 times a week.

vegetables: Two green or colored vegetables other than those prohibited.

bread: As for luncheon.

dessert: Stewed or canned fruit as: pears, peaches or apricots. Custard, Jell-O, gelatine or very ripe fruits, without skins or seeds.

Beverage: Coffee (demi tasse), weak tea, or Postum with milk lump of sugar.

10 A.M. Glass of milk.

4 P.M. Glass of malted milk or cup of tea with a teaspoonful of and 1 lump of sugar.

10 P.M. Glass of milk, malted milk or Ovaltine.

One of each of the above groups should be taken. Those first are preferable; the other foods may be taken occasionally in variety. If there are digestive disturbances, all salads, raw and raw vegetables should be omitted.

AVOID: Fats, fried foods, pork, shell-fish. Thickened gravies, rich highly seasoned foods, sauces, condiments, salt and pepper table. Pickled, smoked and salted foods. Roughage as: cabbage, Brussels sprouts, nuts, celery, bran. Pastries, pies, candies, chocolate, cocoa. Alcohol and carbonated drinks. Smoking in moderation only.

Note: A moderate amount of food high in cholesterol and high in fat has been added to the diet in order to stimulate the emptying of the gall-bladder. The foods high in cholesterol are eggs and organs as liver, kidney and sweetbreads. It is important that these foods be used periodically as directed.

Diet No. 5

(RELATIVELY HIGH CHOLESTEROL AND FAT, HIGH CALORIC)

Breakfast:

Fruit Juices: Orange, grapefruit, or pineapple juice, with 1 tablespoonful of sugar.

OR

Fruits: Baked apple, apple sauce or banana, with a tablespoonful of cream and a teaspoonful of sugar.

Eggs: Two soft boiled or poached eggs with 2 slices of crisp bacon if desired.

Cereals: May be substituted for eggs 2 or 3 times a week. Cooked oatmeal, Cream of Wheat, Wheatena, farina, cornmeal or hominy. Or prepared as: Corn Flakes, Rice Flakes, or shredded wheat with 2 tablespoonfuls of cream and a teaspoonful of sugar.

OR

Waffles: May be substituted for eggs instead of cereal twice a week with syrup and butter.

Bread: Whole wheat or white bread, 2 slices or 2 soft rolls, toasted with butter, jam or marmalade if desired.

Beverage: Cal-C-Tose, milk, malted milk, Ovaltine, coffee or tea, with 2 tablespoonfuls of cream and 2 lumps of sugar.

Luncheon or Supper:

Juices: Tomato or other vegetable juice (without added seasoning).

Soups: Creamed soups as desired, or consommé with barley, noodle, rice spaghetti or vermicelli.

Sandwich: Whole wheat or white bread, toasted with butter and filled with chicken ham or plain cheese.

OR

Salads: Lettuce with cooked vegetables or canned fruits as: string beans, peas, carrots, pineapple, pears or peaches, with salad dressing.

OR

Vegetables: Vegetable plate with poached egg and 3 green or colored vegetables.

Bread: As for breakfast with jam or jelly if desired.

Beverage: Glass of milk, malted milk, Ovaltine or Cal-C-Tose, with an ounce of cream. Or tea with 2 tablespoonfuls of cream and 2 lumps of sugar.

Dessert: As for dinner.

es. Tomato or other vegetable juice (without added seasoning).
 ps. As for luncheon.
 dr. (Meat or fish once daily). Chicken, other than fried. Turkey, beef, roast or broiled, steak; tenderloin, sirloin or round. Chopped meat, lamb chops or roast lamb.

R
 : Baked, boiled or broiled lean fish may be taken 2 or 3 times a week.

ables: Two potatoes, mashed, baked or boiled with 1 square of butter. Rice, macaroni or spaghetti with tomato sauce may be occasionally substituted if desired. Two green or colored vegetables (other than those to be omitted) as: carrots, asparagus, beets, beet greens, wax or string beans, lentils, mushrooms, okra, peas, parsnips, spinach, squash, stewed tomatoes, turnips, vegetable marrow. Avocado may be taken if desired with dressing.

ad: As for breakfast with jam or jelly if desired.

sserts: Apple sauce, baked apple, apple snow, apple tapioca. Stewed or canned apricots, plums, pears or peaches. Banana (baked or ripe), Irish or lemon blanc mange, Brown Betty, bread, cornstarch or rice pudding. Prunes (stewed or pureed), ice cream, Jell-O, junket. Cakes: cup, sponge or plain pound. Custard. American or Edam cheese. In season, very ripe fruits as bananas, apricots, peaches or pears, without skins or seeds.

verage: As for luncheon.

M. Glass of milk with 2 tablespoonfuls of cream or an egg.

M. As at 10 A.M. or tea with cream and sugar. Crackers or cakes.

M. Glass of milk, malted milk or Ovaltine.

One of each of the above groups should be taken. Those listed first are preferable; the other foods may be taken occasionally for variety. If there are digestive disturbances, coffee, salads, raw fruits and raw vegetables should be omitted.

D: Meat fats, fried foods, pork, shell fish. Thickened gravies, sauces, all rich and highly seasoned foods. Condiments. Salt and pepper at the table. Pickled and smoked foods. Roughage as: apples, cabbage, cauliflower, corn, Brussels sprouts, Bran products. Nuts, dates, figs. Carbonated drinks. Alcohol. Pastries, pies, cocoa and chocolate.

: A moderate amount of food high in cholesterol and high in fats has been added to the diet in order to stimulate the emptying of the gall bladder. The foods high in cholesterol are eggs and inner organs as liver, kidney and sweetbreads. It is important that these foods be used periodically as directed.

Diet No. 6

(HIGH CARBOHYDRATE, HIGH PROTEIN, MODERATE FAT
AND HIGH CALORIC)

kfast:

uits: Orange or grapefruit juice, with a teaspoonful of sugar. Or baked apple, apple sauce, bananas or stewed prunes, with a tablespoonful of cream and a teaspoonful of sugar.

reals: Oatmeal, any dark cereal, hominy. Or prepared cereal with two tablespoonfuls of cream and a teaspoonful of sugar.

eggs: Two as desired. With 3 slices of lean bacon.

eat: Chops or steak may be taken instead of eggs and bacon.

affles: Waffles with syrup and one square of butter may be substituted for cereals 2 or 3 times a week.

read: Whole wheat or white bread, 2 slices, toasted with jam, jelly or marmalade.

verage: Ovaltine, Coco-malt or milk with Hemo or Cal-C-Tose. Or coffee, tea or postum with one tablespoonful of cream and 2 lumps of sugar.

Luncheon or Supper:

Juices: Tomato or vegetable juice (without added seasoning).

OR

Soups: Consommé, bouillon or vegetable.

Meat: Lean meat, lean fish should be taken twice daily.

Sandwiches: Two sandwiches, toasted whole wheat or white bread with cream or plain cheese, eggs, jelly, jam, meat.

OR

Vegetables: A vegetable plate with a poached egg may be taken 3 times a week. Mashed or baked potatoes may be taken with half square of butter.

Salads: Lettuce with cooked vegetables or stewed or canned fruit may be taken as: peas, carrots, string beans, peaches, or pears. With mineral oil salad dressing or cream cheese.

Bread: As for breakfast.

Dessert: Stewed or canned fruits. Cornstarch, rice, bread or tapioca pudding. Baked apple or apple sauce. Baked or fresh banana with milk and sugar. Irish or lemon blanc mange. Cake: plain or sponge. Custards. Jell-O, gelatine, Junket. Very ripe fruits without skins or seeds.

Beverage: Glass of Cal-C-Tose, milk or malted milk.

Dinner:

Juices: Tomato or other vegetable juice (without added seasoning).

Soups: Creamed soups (made with milk), bouillon, consommé or broth with rice, barley, macaroni or noodles.

Meats: A liberal portion of lean meat is to be included in 2 meals each day.

Vegetables: Potatoes, mashed, baked or boiled with a half square of butter. Or macaroni, rice or spaghetti with $\frac{1}{2}$ square of butter and a tablespoonful of cream. With two green or colored vegetables as: carrots, asparagus, beets, beet greens, peas, pumpkin, string beans or wax beans, stewed tomatoes, turnips, vegetable marrow.

Bread: As for luncheon.

Desserts: As for luncheon.

Beverage: As for luncheon.

10 A.M. Glass of milk, malted milk or Coco-malt. To milk may be added 2 teaspoonfuls of Hemo or Cal-C-Tose. To be taken with zwieback crackers, toast or arrowroot crackers.

4 P.M. As at 10 A.M.

10 P.M. As at 10 A.M.

One food should be selected from each group. Those listed first are preferable. With digestive symptoms, all salads, raw fruit and raw vegetables should be omitted.

AVOID: Fats, fried foods, greases, oils, pork, veal, thickened sauces, gravies. Liver, kidneys, sweetbreads, brains. All other meat except shell fish and fish unless specifically ordered. Nuts, dates, olive oil, condiments, sauces. Salted, pickled and smoked foods. Roughage as: bran, cabbage, Brussels sprouts, celery, cucumbers. Pickles, cakes, candies, chocolate.

Note: To supplement the protein intake, 2 tablespoonfuls of amino acid preparation, such as amigen, or aminoids, should be taken once daily.

Once daily, 2 tablespoonfuls of Brewer's Yeast powder should be taken in a glass of milk; if desired, flavored with vanilla and nutmeg.

Bridges' Diet for Chronic Cholecystitis and Mucous Colitis.

Owing to the great prevalence of the coexistence of chronic cholecystitis and chronic mucous colitis, the physician is frequently called upon to prescribe a diet which will be relatively innocuous to

of these conditions and at the same time yield sufficient caloric to maintain body nutrition.

As a rule, it can be easily determined which of the two pathologies is more predominating. A diet directed at the major condition will sufficiently meet the diet-therapeutic indication. It has been known in isolated instances, with the coexistence of these two conditions, that surgical intervention directed against the diseased gall-bladder was operative in order to enable the patient to assimilate a diet capable of meeting the nutritional needs.

The necessary diet involves a *low-fat, low-residue* regimen. Both these restrictions limit the vitamin intake (refer to pp. 50, 52). Vitamin supplements, therefore, become highly desirable if a satisfactory nutritional state is to be secured and maintained. Sample menus of the type found elsewhere in this book are presented with reference to the cholesterol content of the diet.

Low-cholesterol Diet.

Typical Menu.

(If necessary to modify the residue, serve puréed fruits and vegetables and omit salads.)

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked cereal with milk and sugar
Bread or roll with jam or marmalade
Coffee or tea with milk and sugar

Luncheon:

Soup: potato, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti, vermicelli
Cooked vegetables, except broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, cauliflower
Corn, onions, turnips
Salad with lemon juice
Bread with jelly
Fresh or stewed fruit
Milk or tea with lemon

Dinner:

Lean meat or fish, except: brains, kidneys, liver or sweetbreads
Potato
Cooked vegetables, except broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, cauliflower, corn, onions, turnips
Gelatin toast, breadsticks, Zwieback
Fresh or stewed fruit
Coffee with milk and sugar

High-cholesterol Diet.

Typical Menu.

(If necessary to modify the residue, serve puréed fruits and vegetables and omit salads.)

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Eggs, except fried
Bread or rolls with generous amount of butter
Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Meat, fish, eggs or cheese

*Use three times weekly: brains, kidney, liver, sweetbreads*Cooked vegetable, except broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, cauliflower,
corn, onions, turnips

Salad with dressing

Bread with generous amount of butter

Fresh *or* stewed fruit

Milk

*Dinner:*Meat *or* fish

Potato with generous amount of butter

Cooked vegetable, except broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, cauliflower,
corn, onions, turnips

Bread with generous amount of butter

Simple pudding made with milk and eggs

Milk *or* coffee with cream and sugar**GASTRIC ATONY.**

CLARENCE FULLER, M. D.

Discussion.—As the term indicates, the stomach, due to loss of tone, is incapable of properly evacuating its contents.

Patients affected with gastric atony should eat small quantities of food at regular and frequent intervals. The quantity of fluids should not exceed one and one-half quarts per day. Reference should be made to the list of foods containing less than 25 per cent water and a selected group of these foods may be infiltrated into the diet. In this way, proper caloric value can be better maintained without increasing the volumetric ingestion. Fluids should be taken in small amounts, not more than 4 oz. at one time.

The diet should be varied according to the gastric acidity; in case of hyperacidity, foods stimulating secretion of acid should be eliminated (see Diet in Ulcer, Peptic) but liberal amounts of protein are allowed because of their neutralizing effect on gastric acidity; if there is sub- or anacidity, foods stimulating acid secretion (q. v.) should be taken. Coarse vegetables should be eliminated, and all vegetables preferably pureed.

Typical Menu.

6 A.M.	Diluted fruit purée
8 A.M.	Cooked cereal with cream and sugar Hot milk and cream flavored with coffee and sugar
10 A.M.	Soft-cooked egg Toast with butter
12 NOON.	Thick cream of vegetable soup with crackers Baked custard <i>or</i> pudding
2 P.M.	Boiled rice with cream and sugar
4 P.M.	Apple sauce <i>or</i> puréed fruit Toast with butter
6 P.M.	Minced meat Baked <i>or</i> mashed potato with butter Ice-cream <i>or</i> pudding
8 P.M.	Hot milk <i>or</i> cocoa Toasted crackers with butter

estions.—Infrequently, in very severe cases a Sippy diet at the administration of alkalis has been successful. This diet commence with the beginning of the second week and continue hereafter. Dried milk preparations, malted milk and eggs, to any beverage, can supplement the menus.

GASTROPTOSIS.

CLARENCE FULLER, M. D.

troptosis per se does not exist, and is not a clinical entity; if stomach functions normally it's position does not matter. The treatment is that of the patient as a whole, and not directed at symptoms attributable to the malposition of any one organ.

DIABETES, ALIMENTARY AND RENAL, AND GLYCOSURIA OF PREGNANCY.

Discussion.—Irrespective of the variance of opinion concerning differentiation between renal and alimentary glycosuria together with their relationship to true diabetes, the practitioner is frequently called upon to prescribe a dietary for the non-diabetic glycosuric. This is especially true of patients who complain of pruritus vulvæ. The principles of the dietary are such that the carbohydrates are moderately limited, whereas the quantity of ingested fats and proteins is generally disregarded.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Sweetened fruit juice
Eggs or bacon
One slice whole grain toast with butter
Coffee with cream

Luncheon:

Meat, fish or cheese
Cooked vegetable with butter
Salad with dressing
Fresh or water-packed fruit
Milk

Dinner:

Meat or fish
Cooked vegetables with butter
Salad with dressing
Fresh or water-packed fruit
Coffee with cream

Suggestions.—Some of the sugar substitutes such as saccharin, cyclamate, crystalline, etc., may be used to replace cane sugar.

The diet in renal diabetes and the not uncommon glycosuria of pregnancy is the same as the foregoing.

Contraindications.—The use of magnesium and compound licorice powder among other contraindications are specifically contraindicated due to their sugar content.

Commonly a pseudoglucose urinary reaction is obtained in presence of salicylate or salicylic acid derivative and hexamethylenamin therapy which could readily be misinterpreted as or genuine glycosuria.

Before instituting dietary therapy for a presenting "glycosuria" the nature of the urinary sugar should be ascertained.

GOITER.

J. WILLIAM HINTON, M.D.

Discussion.—In the belief that a deficiency of iodine in the diet is the chief factor in the etiology of simple thyroid enlargement has become well established, by repeated demonstrations of prophylaxis and cures both in experimental animals and in man, that such is the case. Attention was definitely fixed on the rôle of iodine in the simple diffuse goiter by Baumann's work in 1895, and the iodine contained in materials such as sea salt, ashes of sponges and seaweeds are ancient remedies for simple goiter. As might be expected, simple goiter in man is chiefly regional in occurrence and the localities which have the highest incidence of goiter include the Alpine regions of Switzerland, Italy and France, southern Germany and southern Austria; the Himalayan districts of India; the Andean region of South America; and, on the North American continent, the Great Lakes basin, the Cascade Mountain region of Oregon, Washington and British Columbia, and to a lesser degree the Appalachian Mountain region, and the Rocky Mountain states. The eastern seacoast is comparatively free from simple goiter.

The mode of action of iodine in the organism is not entirely clear. The minute quantities of this substance involving the metabolism of the thyroid have made analytical procedures difficult to carry out; however, through the combining of known factors of goiter incidence with such chemical studies as are possible, it is known that the food and water supply of goiter areas are deficient in iodine in comparison to the seacoast. A properly balanced diet will prevent the development of a simple diffuse goiter, providing there is a sufficient iodine content.

It is known that the green leafy vegetables contain the highest percentage of iodine with the root vegetables next in order, and cereals showing a very small iodine content. McClendon and Hatfield have called attention to the vegetables from Maine and Connecticut containing more iodine than those from Minnesota and Oregon; and Weston and Remington, working with the South Carolina Natural Resources Commission, have called attention to the relatively high percentage of iodine in the different vegetables from the state of South Carolina. They suggest that the principal source of iodine is from the disintegration of granite rocks supplemented by the use of commercial fertilizer. The influence of the sea is not beyond a narrow belt of the coast. They used the determination of iodine content of potatoes to show the relation of iodine in the vegetables to the distance from the sea, and when the

is expressed in parts per billion of the dry basis, there is a percentage in a radius 20 miles from the coast, than there at a distance of 50 miles. Sea foods are very rich in iodine, but in the goiter belts these are difficult to obtain; Jarvis, Clough and others, however, have called attention to the use of salmon in the diet for the prophylaxis of goiter, and state that the systematic use of sea foods which are rich in iodine would be of considerable benefit in the treatment of simple goiter. They lay particular emphasis on the use of salmon on account of its cheapness and availability for prophylactic purposes.

The iodine content of vegetables and sea foods is not appreciably altered during the process of cooking. Canned salmon has practically the same iodine value as the fresh salmon, and Adolph Prochaska carried out experiments to determine what changes, if any, take place in the iodine contents of vegetables on cooking, and they found that cooking vegetables in water did not alter the iodine value.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked whole grain cereal with cream and sugar
Egg, except fried
Whole grain toast *or* roll with butter
Milk *or* hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar

Luncheon:

Choice: Meat, fish, eggs *or* cheese
Cooked vegetable with butter
Salad with dressing
Whole grain bread with butter
Fresh *or* stewed fruit
Milk

Dinner:

Meat *or* fish
(*Use fish twice weekly*)
Potato with butter
Cooked vegetable with butter
Whole grain bread with butter
Simple dessert *or* fruit
Milk

NOTE.—Whereas it is to be noted that the crustacea and mollusks have a high iodine content it is also recognized that their availability throughout the world is very uncertain. Substitutes must be utilized in such instances.

SUGGESTIONS.—From clinical observations it is known that the simple diffuse goiter developing during adolescence will spontaneously involute in a much higher percentage of children if they are taken from the goiter belt and live at the seacoast. This is chiefly due to the iodine content in the diet and drinking water.

The thyroid enlargement is not solely due to an iodine deficiency but there is apparently some alteration of the protein metabolism whereby the amino-acid metabolism is disturbed and tyrosine is not normally produced. As thyroxine is derived from tyrosine according to the work of Harington and Randall, the thyroid hypertrophies due to the thyroxine deficiency. Davis and Hill have been able to produce colloid goiters in dogs by altering protein metabolism, whereby the tyrosine was not normally formed.

It appears that, if a person is put on a proper iodine balance, a simple goiter will not develop, but if the food and water supply is deficient in iodine, this in turn alters the normal body metabolism with a resulting thyroid enlargement. Refer to the list of Foods Highest in Iodine, as well as to the iodine table in the Appendix.

GONORRHEA.

Refer to page 578.

GOUT.

Discussion.—Gout is a condition of disturbed purin metabolism. It is characterized by the deposition of monosodium urate in various tissues, particularly the joints. The joint most commonly affected is the great toe. Coincidentally, there is determinable an elevation of blood uric acid.

By and large, the general incidence of gout in the past decade has been low. However, with the specialization which medicine has undergone, these cases are most commonly observed in orthopedic clinics.

The regimen for gout resolves itself into a management of uric-acid diathesis with a marked stringency of diet for those cases presenting acute symptoms.

Curiously, it has been demonstrated that during an acute attack of gout the urinary uric-acid output is found to be normal or at times lower than normal. It would appear that the body, during an attack, retains uric acid to a greater extent than during the interval between attacks.

During the acute attack great restriction in diet should be insisted upon and the foods should be as purin-free as possible, restricted in quantity and relatively low in protein. This restriction in protein during an acute attack will not be found to be detrimental due to the fact that the maintenance of the diet for acute gout is rarely instituted over any great period of time. The caloric value of the daily menu for the same reason may be disregarded. The insistence on large quantities of fluids is universally acknowledged as being of prime importance. Needless to say, alcohol in any form is positively forbidden.

The dietary regimen resolves itself into two parts. The first is what may be called a "positive" diet, owing to the fact that a few foods with a few exceptions are prohibited. The foods from which the diet is to be exclusively drawn follow.

ed.			
	<i>Dairy products:</i>	<i>Bread:</i>	<i>Vegetables—</i>
ples	Butter	Cakes	<i>all except:</i>
ricots	Buttermilk	Rye bread	Asparagus
ocado	Cheese	Rolls	Eggplant
manas	Cream	White bread	Green peas
ackberries	Eggs	Wheat prod-	Lima beans
heberries	Milk	ucts	Mushrooms
erries			Spinach
apes		<i>Nuts:</i>	Split peas
ganberries	<i>Cereals:</i>	Almonds	String beans
elons	Barley	Hazelnuts	
anges	Cream of Wheat	Walnuts	
aches	Farina		
ars	Grits	<i>Miscellaneous:</i>	
neapple	Hominy	Alimentary	
ums	Oatmeal	pastes	
aspberries	Rice	Gelatin	
rawberries	Sago	Olives	
onatoes	Tapioca	Sugars	
atermelon	Wheatena	Syrups	

These foods should be liberally utilized.

NOTE.—Salt, spices and other seasonings are to be limited.

ACUTE STAGE.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked cereal with milk and sugar

Toast or rolls with butter

Milk

Morning:

Fruit juice

Luncheon:

Choice: Potato, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti, vermicelli

Cooked vegetables

Salad with dressing

Bread with butter

Stewed fruit

Afternoon:

Milk or buttermilk

Supper:

Eggs or cheese

Potato, baked or mashed

Cooked vegetable

Stewed fruit

Bedtime:

Fresh fruit or milk

NOTE.—At least 8 glasses of water are to be taken daily.

The second part, which is not so limited, and which should be instituted immediately after the subsidence of very acute symptoms, consists of a diet in which the following foods are to be omitted with the first dietary, the advisability of large quantities of food should be respected. It should be noted that cocoa is a permanent beverage (see pages 567 and 727).

Omit.

Alcohol	Fish roe	Prepared soup concentrates or cubes
Asparagus	Heart	Rabbit
Beef	Goose	Shellfish
Brains	Kidneys	Soups, stock
Broths	Legumes	Spinach
Cauliflower	Liver	Sweetbreads
Chicken	Meat gravies	Tea
Coffee	Mushrooms	Tongue
Duck and all game	Mutton	Veal
Eggplant	Pancreas	Yeast
Fish	Pork	

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Toast or rolls with butter
Milk

Luncheon:

Choice: potatoes, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti, vermicelli
Cooked vegetables
Salad with dressing
Bread with butter
Stewed fruit
Milk

Dinner:

Cream of vegetable soup
Eggs or cheese
Potato
Cooked vegetable
Salad with dressing
Bread with butter
Fresh or stewed fruit
Milk

Suggestions.—The amount of food either in acute or chronic gout should be markedly limited. Overeating is well recognized as being capable of precipitating an acute attack.

Very commonly we find obesity and gout associated. When this is present, further selective restrictions of the diet outlined for gout should be made. This consists in substituting foods of low-caloric value in place of those with a higher caloric content.

ference can be made to the different tables designating the caloric value of various foods.

It can be readily seen that this type of diet should not be enforced for a great length of time as the chief offending factor in the decrease in allowed protein. The continuation of such a protein diet will cause a marked depletion of physical vitality and produce anemia.

In cases of chronic gout the regimen and diet for uric-acid diathesis are recommended.

GYNECOLOGICAL AND OBSTETRICAL CONDITIONS

MORTIMER N. HYAMS, M.D.

Introduction.—The importance of diet in obstetrics and gynecology has been vividly brought to the attention of the medical profession through the reports of experimental and clinical observations during the past decade. In obstetrics primarily, the need of dietetic knowledge is paramount, both as a prophylactic as well as a therapeutic measure during pregnancy and the puerperium. To meet the demands of metabolic, endocrinologic and physical changes constantly taking place from impregnation to the termination of labor, restitution and lactation, the body must be supplied with the necessary food elements, vitamins and minerals in a quantity adequate to the needs of the individual patient.

The definite nutritive properties of the ten most important amino-acids have been clinically demonstrated. In conjunction with vitamins and minerals they constitute the necessary vital components of food serving as a prophylactic against nutritional deficiencies. Their physiological utility is independent of their energy value, and protein in adequate amount will supply all the amino-acids necessary for the repair and growth of the tissue.

Various conditions occurring in both gynecology and obstetrics can be discussed relative to their association with food elements. The diet for the menstruating woman need not differ from that of other times. A moderate increase in exogenous fluids is desirable, however, to replace the tissue fluid loss. With an increased blood loss not sufficient to constitute a hemorrhage, but in excess of the amount normal for the particular woman, protein intake must be increased.

Hemorrhagia-Metrorrhagia.—When menstruation is excessive, premenstrual or intermenstrual, the determination of the cause is of paramount importance. In some instances, treatment cannot be instituted immediately due to the profound anemia present. Blood transfusion, together with an appropriate diet, is necessary if the cause of the condition can be eliminated.

The anemia is usually of the hypochromic type. The diet must be increased in quality and quantity using, especially, those foods with a high ironizable iron content, such as: almonds, broken chestnuts, raisins, dried apricots, dried prunes, endive, boiled spinach, cocoa butter, raw beef, roast lean beef, baked heart, kidney stew, lamb

and ox liver, roast mutton, cooked tongue, roast veal, fried chops, canned sardines, eggs.

Protein foods should predominate.

Fertility and Sterility.—**Discussion.**—Physiologic research, biochemic investigations, both animal and human, have demonstrated that nutrition plays an important rôle in some of the problems in the field of fertility and sterility.

Reynolds and Macomber proved the effect of diet on this mechanism. They found that by eliminating certain essential elements from the diet the fertility index in animals could be lowered at will; the mating became sterile. On the other hand, sterile matings with a low index could be rendered fertile by the addition of certain elements. This principle has been successfully applied in improving the fertility of animals in captivity and in treating sterility in human unions, when mechanical and other causes have been excluded in the partners. The authors conclude that effective diet produces sterility by causing a partial or complete functional inactivity in the testis or ovaries, as a result of which these organs fail to produce or release capable spermatozoa or ova.

While the problem of feeding human beings for high fertility on the one hand and for its restoration or awakening on the other can be analysed and checked up as in the case of laboratory animals, the results so far achieved have inspired hope and given assurance of continued improvement in the future. There is no satisfactory clinical proof that Vitamin E deficiency is present in cases of sterility.

Another sequel of dietary error or deficiency, although not preventing conception, is noted in those cases in which the vitality of the germ cells is so affected that the growing embryo is able to attain only a certain stage of development as the result of prolonged use of a defective diet. Active growth then stops, nutrition fails, and death of the embryo ultimately occurs, followed by abortion. It is, therefore, important to regulate the diet of both prospective mothers and fathers as a precautionary measure. It may measure the difference between a normal pregnancy and parturition, and an abnormal termination with all the complications which follow such an occurrence.

Some cases of one child sterility are perhaps due to mothers remaining an invalid after pregnancy because of a deficient diet; the defect in minerals acting upon the hypophysis and ovary, resulting in an abnormal function. It has been suggested that diet and pluriglandular dystrophy may be associated with or responsible for diminution of the folliculin-producing principle in the ovary and the placenta, which controls spontaneous contraction and the termination of gestation, and thereby leads, in some cases, to prematurity or pathologic postmaturity. Much has appeared in the literature regarding Rh factor determination. Whether it be negative or positive, it apparently has no effect on diet.

Pregnancy.—**Discussion.**—The dietary problem in pregnancy is comparatively simple and should not be made complicated for the

at. No special dietary restrictions need be advised except as are usual and adequate for the normal woman: as the process is physiologic in the majority of cases, the nutritional regulation should be based upon that assumption. Pathologic conditions, if they arise are to be met and dealt with individually, and according to the circumstances, which may vary in some cases. Proper amounts of adequate nutrients must be furnished for the maintenance of the mother and for the development of the fetus. Attention to the diet of women before pregnancy occurs is important, to prevent defects in the future fetus.

During the first half of pregnancy the woman's metabolic rate is appreciably changed. In the fifteenth week it is about 1.5 per cent below normal. After the fourth month it gradually increases, reaching a few days before delivery when it is about 23 per cent above normal. At this time there is an increase of about 14 per cent, or 10 pounds, in body weight. Following delivery, there is a gradual return in the mother's basal metabolism to about 9.5 per cent below original rate.

The mother requires no increase in caloric intake until the fourth month of pregnancy. After this, her needs gradually increase until the end of the ninth month. Her caloric intake should then be about 20 per cent higher than at the beginning of pregnancy.

A woman of ordinary size and sedentary habits should ingest about 2500 Calories a day. An excess of 3000 Calories is rarely necessary, even in an active woman, except under special circumstances. If the patient is underweight, additional food is prescribed. If overweight, a reduction diet is indicated. It is not to the woman's advantage to add weight over and above that of the increase demanded by the growing fetus.

The protein intake should average 100 grams daily, selecting foods of high biologic value, such as milk, milk products, eggs, meat, and vegetables. Elements, as calcium, phosphorus and iron, are essential because there is a tendency to demineralization of the maternal tissues, especially of the bones and teeth, unless an adequate supply is furnished by the food. The restriction of calcium, on the assumption that it will facilitate labor by making the cranial bones of the fetus softer and thus aid in molding and expulsion, is now condemned. There is nothing to prove the correctness of this theory, and all that can be said in regard to this practice is that danger and disaster may ensue.

Milk as a food, because of the calcium and protein it contains, is especially important. It is deficient in iron and this should be supplied by added feedings of eggs, green vegetables and whole grain cereals in sufficient quantity. The restriction of protein, especially meat, in order to "spare the kidneys" has no physiologic or chemical foundation and no proved influence in the development or susceptibility to so-called "kidney trouble," and is unjustifiable. An ideal way of meeting and satisfying the daily protein, mineral and vitamin requirements is to provide *one salad, two liberal servings of green vegetables, with 1 or 2 eggs, 1 quart of milk, fruit and an adequate*

serving of fish or meat. In those cases in which the necessary quantity of milk required is not well borne, various milk products may be substituted with satisfactory results. Cheese, custards, cream and junkets may be used for this purpose. Cereals, cream, butter and bread can make up the required caloric value.

While the diet should at all times be generous, it is not advisable to encourage the patient to overeat on the assumption that there are two to feed instead of one. Overeating leads to indigestion, constipation and toxemia.

A very important item, not properly classed as a food, in spite of the fact that it forms a large percentage of the bulk of most foods, is water. It should be taken liberally, unless contraindicated by some pathologic condition. If necessary, the patient must be educated to take water regularly between meals. This may be difficult but must not be feared lest chilling or indigestion ensue. Once acquired, this habit usually remains well fixed in the daily life of the patient, producing results which will be of benefit to her future health and well-being.

The vitamins are important in the maintenance of normal pregnancy. Deficiency of vitamin C and D together with lack of calcium and phosphorus are thought to favor gingivitis, dental caries, muscular weakness, spasmodic cramps in the legs and arms, tachycardia and tetany. Deficiency of vitamin D alone causes the skull of the infant to be softer than normal, the epiphyseal lines particularly of the metacarpals to be fringed and poorly calcified, and the teeth, when erupted, to become grossly hypoplastic. There appears to be unusual susceptibility at this time to dental caries; this is generally attributed to calcium deficiency. Excess calcium results in increased ossification and growth of the skeletal structure, particularly of the fetal skull. Vitamin D deficiency is seldom recognized. It has been estimated that in almost two out of three pregnancies deficiency of vitamin C exists. The value of vitamin E in obstetrics is generally disputed. Vitamin K is finding increasing use before and after the onset of labor for the control of postpartum hemorrhage and for protection of the child against internal bleeding due to birth trauma. Post-partum polyneuritis is attributable to lack of thiamine, this vitamin being removed from the body in additional amounts during lactation. The vitamin requirements during pregnancy and lactation are given elsewhere. Reference should also be made to the entire vitamin section.

It has been claimed that a salt-free restricted diet given the last four to six weeks of pregnancy shortens the first and second stages of labor and makes for a less painful delivery. This has not been substantiated by our own experience.

Conn, Vant and Malone have outlined a simple formula by means of which the diet may be planned throughout pregnancy and lactation. It is based on a daily intake of:

- 1 quart of milk, supplemented twice weekly with cheese
- 2 cups of vegetables, 1 fresh if possible
- 1 cup of fruit; citrus fruits or canned tomatoes thrice weekly

cup of cooked whole cereal, supplemented two to three days each month with uncooked wheat-germ
 medium serving of meat, fish, fowl or eggs with liver added once weekly

is regimen will furnish sufficient protein, minerals and vitamins maintain resistance, well-being, and fetal growth. To supply energy and make the diet attractive and satisfying, such foods as milk, potatoes, macaroni, rice, crackers, cakes, sugar, jelly, jam, butter, cream and salad oils are added in amounts dictated by the appetite and regulated by the gain in weight.

It has been suggested that a woman in the latter half of pregnancy about 56 kilogram weight requires 2400 calories consisting of:

grams protein	1.5 milligrams B ₁
grams calcium	100 milligrams vitamin C
milligrams Iron	2.5 milligrams Riboflavin
Int. units vitamin A	15 milligrams nicotinic acid
Int. units vitamin D	

Less than 75 grams protein daily intake during this period will result in an infant which will tend to be short, light in weight and is likely to receive a low pediatric rating in other respects.

Vomiting of Pregnancy.—Discussion.—Degrees of gastric distress, ranging from the simple morning nausea to pernicious vomiting, may occur in pregnancy. The causative factors have been attributed to a neurotic tendency, a reflex influence or to a definite toxemia. Investigation has demonstrated that some disturbance of carbohydrate metabolism is probably an etiologic factor. Eliminating the reflex irritation caused by some pathologic lesion in the pelvic organs, such as uterine displacement, anteversion, pelvic adhesions, ovarian cysts, etc., vomiting is, at the present time, considered to be a metabolic disturbance, either alone or combined with a toxic or neurotic derangement. It is always important to ascertain whether or not the vomiting is of toxic origin, in order that proper treatment be instituted early, no matter how mild the symptoms may be. Reflex influences should be corrected before the symptoms become pernicious, a condition often difficult to relieve.

Excellent results very often follow simple dietary measures. A cup of hot coffee or tea with a cracker, to be taken on awakening in the morning and in bed before arising, followed by a bland diet during the balance of the day, is often sufficient. The odor of cooking sometimes produces nausea, and when this causative factor is removed some patients are immediately relieved. Small meals should be given at three-hour intervals, consisting mainly of carbohydrates—cereals, sugar, bread, crackers, fresh and leafy vegetables and fruits. Fats and proteins are contraindicated. Charcoal and bismuth, cerium oxalate or sodium bicarbonate internally, three or four times a day, are sometimes useful. A colitis may cause pernicious vomiting during pregnancy and the vomiting usually subsides when this primary cause is relieved.

In the pernicious type the treatment is partly dependent upon the etiology, but regardless of its origin eliminating focal infections

and reflex tendencies is essential. The patient must have absolute rest in bed, with competent nursing. Lynch advocates nothing by mouth and the rectal administration of glucose, bromides and morphine to be continued until all vomiting ceases. He also favors a diet, high in caloric value and free from proteins, in small frequent feedings. Davis also restricts all food and fluids by mouth. Three hundred and fifty cc. of 5 per cent glucose solution containing 30 to 60 grains of sodium bromide and sodium bicarbonate is given by rectum every four to six hours, gradually decreasing the bromides. After twenty-four to thirty-six hours, feeding by mouth is resumed, small quantities of liquids at first and later solid food. With dehydration, hypodermoclysis of 800 to 1000 cc. of physiologic salt solution, or glucose intravenously, supplements the rectal therapy.

DeLee also advocates rectal feeding and therapy. He gives 1 dram of sodium bromide in 4 ounces of milk every four hours by rectum, for 8 to 10 doses. He states that the use of corpus luteum in this condition is disappointing.

The foods used should be dry, such as toast, a chop, sliced chicken or crackers with jelly or marmalade. Hyperemesis is at times relieved by the use of whole wheat bread whereas food lacking vitamin B₁, as white bread, sugar, or potatoes, may be ineffective. Water must not be taken until one and a half hours after eating and not within one hour of the next feeding. If a dry diet is rejected, liquids in a semi-solid form should be tried and, if they fail, duodenal feeding may be instituted. Insulin with a high-carbohydrate diet has been used with some satisfying results.

Water and salt must be introduced into the system to replace that lost by vomiting. Sugar must also be supplied to replace the depleted glycogen. This should be given intravenously in the form of hypertonic glucose solution. Two hundred cc. of a 25 per cent glucose solution may be given twice daily with safety if the necessity presents.

In some instances the hypodermic use of large doses of atropine sulphate on awakening or at frequent intervals has proved advantageous.

Underweight in Pregnancy.—Discussion.—A woman may be considered as being underweight when the standard of average size to weight ratio is decreased by 10 to 15 pounds. Underweight is divided into two types, the sthenic and asthenic.

In the sthenic or hereditary type the patient has good stamina and normal resistance to disease. While she may be below the average normal weight, she is vigorous and well able to tolerate pregnancy with little or no difficulty.

The asthenic patient is not only thin, but undernourished, and lacks resistance and endurance, due to an abnormal metabolism or an actual diseased state which has a defective metabolic rate as a concomitant or as a sequence. The latter group is prone to abortion, premature delivery, prolonged labor, postpartum hemorrhage, postpartum sepsis or other complications of pregnancy.

the dietary management of these patients, refer to Under-
sity in Pregnancy. **Discussion.** Obesity can be said to ex-
 ceed the standard of average size to weight ratio is increased by
 10 per cent or more. In pregnant women allowance must be made
 for the gestation sac and consideration given to the growing fetus
 in determining the existence of obesity. Irrespective of the under-
 cause of obesity, whenever the amount of energy produced by
 body economy is less than that represented by the food intake,
 especially if combined with little or no physical exercise, obesity
 results. Moderate and regular exercise aids metabolism, and sup-
 ports muscle tone. Lack of exercise results in flabbiness, with all

LOW-CALORIC DIET.

(Approximately 1200 Calories.)

Typical Menu.

Breakfast or midmorning:

1 tablespoon brewer's yeast powder in
 1/2 glass water or fruit juice

Breakfast:

1/2 cup fresh fruit	<i>one serving</i>
1 slice whole grain bread or toast thinly buttered	<i>one slice</i>
1 cup milk	<i>one cup</i>

Morning or midafternoon:

1/2 cup fruit juice	<i>one cup</i>
3 liver oil capsules	<i>two</i>

Luncheon:

1/2 cup cottage cheese	<i>one-quarter pound</i>
1/2 cup corn	<i>one serving</i>

1/2 cup eggs	<i>two</i>
1/2 cup cooked vegetable, other than potato	<i>one serving</i>

1/2 cup large salad of raw vegetables	<i>one serving</i>
1 slice whole grain bread thinly buttered	<i>one slice</i>
1/2 cup fresh fruit	<i>one serving</i>
1 cup milk	<i>one cup</i>

Dinner:

1/2 cup lean meat or fish (no gravy)	<i>one-quarter pound</i>
1/2 cup cooked vegetable, other than potato	<i>one serving</i>

1/2 cup large salad of raw vegetables	<i>one serving</i>
1 slice whole grain bread thinly buttered	<i>one slice</i>
1/2 cup fresh fruit	<i>one serving</i>
1 cup milk	<i>one cup</i>

Supper:

1/2 cup milk or buttermilk	<i>one cup</i>
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disadvantages. Most cases encountered in practice are the vic-
 tims of an unrestrained and excessive appetite. Paralleling this
 variation is the generally accepted fact that the pregnant woman
 is often troubled with a voracious or perverted appetite. While
 this may be of mental origin, it is nevertheless reflected physically

in size and weight, because of her satisfaction of the abnormal appetite.

The diet need not consist of any specially prepared dishes, nor is it necessary to resort to freak menus or manufactured foods. An ordinary diet suitable for pregnancy should be adhered to. Excess of fats, sugars, sweets and pastry must be avoided, and their ingestion even curtailed. This will have favorable influence in preventing obesity in the average case, and will benefit those patients in whom the tendency to excessive weight is apparent, or obesity already present. The protein, mineral, and vitamin content of the diet must be maintained at all times and not allowed to fall below the sustaining level. Except under close supervision the diet of obese pregnant women should furnish not less than 1200 Calories.

Eclampsia.—Discussion.—The etiologic factors in eclampsia are still somewhat obscure, and until the causes are proved, the restrictions must be predicated on the results of recent investigations and conceptions of the condition. Eclampsia has been called the disease of theories. The theory that eclampsia is of nephritic origin has been almost discarded and the associated nephritis usually present is now regarded as secondary rather than as the exciting cause. The diet should, therefore, conform to a proper concept of the underlying metabolic derangement and be modified somewhat by the patient's condition in the pre-eclamptic, eclamptic or post-eclamptic state. If complications are present the diet must be modified still further. Proper restriction and regulation of food during pregnancy is excellent insurance against the development of eclampsia.

Pre-eclamptic State.—In the pre-eclamptic state the usual procedures should be rigidly enforced. These include restriction of protein intake, absolute rest, due attention to bowel and kidney elimination. In view of the incidental disturbance in carbohydrate metabolism, as demonstrated by Titus, the ingestion of carbohydrates should be markedly increased. Intravenous injection of glucose is usually unnecessary in these patients, as they can take and retain food by mouth. A diet high in carbohydrates is essential in pre-eclamptic patients and glucose with fruit juices should be prominent in the prescribed diet.

If toxemia becomes severe and the kidneys are involved, even to a minor degree, the patient should be put to bed and allowed nothing but water or milk by mouth. As the symptoms abate, an absolute milk diet is given, which is later augmented by the gradual addition of cereals, vegetables, vegetable oils and butter. Still later, if the patient is progressing favorably, a full vegetable diet with fruits and 1 egg daily is permissible. Fish, chicken, smoked or fresh ham is finally added, but a full diet is contraindicated. Spices, tea, coffee, alcohol, and meats in general are forbidden. The heaviest meal should be given at noon. Water is indicated in large amounts at room temperature, unless contraindicated by a complicating edema or cardiac involvement and should be taken on an empty stomach, morning and night. Peptonized milk, koumiss

Buttermilk are excellent aids in expediting convalescence. All the emunctories should be stimulated by alternating saline and cathartics.

Eclamptic Stage.—The most important item in the treatment of eclampsia is the intravenous administration of hypertonic glucose solution in single doses of 75 grams in 300 cc. of water (25 per cent solution). This should be given at the rate of not more than 15 cc. per minute, taking from one and a quarter to one and a half hours for the entire injection. The injection should be repeated at intervals of four or five hours during the attack and even after the cessation of the convulsions (three or four times in the twenty-four hours). Further injections depend upon the needs and response of the patient, but should be continued until fluids can be taken freely by mouth.

After recovery from the acute attack, the pre-eclamptic diet can be restored and maintained until delivery takes place. The diet can be varied somewhat if conditions are especially favorable, in order to avoid monotony.

It must be remembered that diet alone rarely cures eclampsia. Medicinal therapy where indicated is essential; even emptying the bowels may be necessary.

Anemias in Pregnancy.—Discussion.—It has been reported that the mean hemoglobin concentration in pregnancy is 11.56 grams per 100 cc. of blood; the mean cell volume, 37.31 volumes per cent; and the mean erythrocyte count, 3,770,000 per c.mm. The minimal standards for normal pregnancy may be placed at:

Hemoglobin	10 grams per 100 cc.
Cell volume	33 vol. per cent
Red blood cells	3,360,000 per c.mm.

Various forms of anemia have been described. The mild type usually is due to a deficiency in calcium, iron, copper, and manganese. A second type is insidious in onset and is generally associated with vomiting or other gastro-intestinal disturbance. In such cases, there has been long-standing dietary deficiency with regard to protein foods, fruits and green vegetables. The blood picture shows hypochromia. The most severe type is due to deficiency of Castle's intrinsic factor in the diet or lack of the intrinsic hematinic principle of the stomach and intestines. Much variation is seen in the shape and size of the erythrocytes; megalocytes are always present. The color index is about 1. When the protein intake is adequate, the hemoglobin content of the blood will usually be normal.

The first essential in the treatment of any anemia is to determine the type whether macrocytic, normocytic or hypochromic macrocytic. The anemias of pregnancy are usually attributable to dietary deficiency together with defective utilization of iron. The hemoglobin reaches its lowest level near the seventh month. Therapy should be instituted if it falls below 11 grams per 100 cc. It is advisable that hemoglobin determination be routinely at this time. Iron in cer-

tain protein foods is less readily available than that in carbohydrate-rich foods. Refer elsewhere for discussion of utilizable iron.

During the latter half of pregnancy, liver should be an important part of the diet. Medicinal iron also is advisable. Blood transfusions may be resorted to without deleterious effects. Treatment of anemia in pregnancy differs in no respect from the usual therapy. In pregnancy the prevention of anemia is easier than the cure. An adequate diet, with proper hygiene, is probably the best prophylaxis.

Following Obstetrical Operations. — Discussion. — The diet following operative obstetrical procedures differs in no respect from that suitable for the post-operative gynecological patient. Following Cesarean section, which is usually attended with considerable loss of body fluid as well as blood, it is wise to force fluids as early as possible by all available avenues. The diet must be high in caloric value to restore the normal physical equilibrium of the patient and to prepare her for the period of lactation. A slightly higher carbohydrate and lowered fat ratio will tend to offset the common associated post-operative acidosis.

Following Postpartum Hemorrhage. — Discussion. — Postpartum bleeding may occur during the third stage of labor or during the first twenty-four hours thereafter. The bleeding may be checked by immediate treatment, but blood transfusion is often necessary. Subsequently, the diet should be planned to renew vital energy and to aid in the restoration of the strength of the patient.

Labor. — Discussion. — The labor of childbirth is equivalent to one half hour of heavy bodily work or three hours of light work.

Experience at the Chicago Lying-In Hospital has led Adair to the adoption of the following suggestions relative to the food and fluid intake of pregnant patients. No fluids or solids of any description should be given to patients in labor, when the delivery is anticipated within two hours, and for patients in whom short labor is anticipated nothing except water or fluid without residue should be given during labor. When fluids are administered they should be used in quantities not to exceed two ounces and should not be repeated more frequently than every thirty minutes. In protracted labor, fruit juices, sweetened with sugar plus additional lactose are given.

The Puerperium. — Discussion. — The dietary during the puerperium should not be different from that of the post-operative non-febrile patient, except that it can be more abundant and varied. Fluids should be given freely for the reason that during labor and subsequently the body is drained of a considerable amount of fluid and blood, and this loss must be restored.

If a general anesthetic has been given there is usually some subsequent nausea and vomiting. As soon as these have subsided a cup of hot tea is gratifying. Water at room temperature may be given in small quantities at regular intervals.

On the first day of the puerperium small quantities of easily digested foods such as bouillon, boiled or poached eggs, buttered toast, milk, milk toast, buttermilk, Zoolak, gruels, fruit juices, jellies

coffee, tea or cocoa may be given at frequent intervals. Water should be given between feedings.

On the second day simple soups, strained cereals, vegetables or raw or stewed oysters, sweetbreads, chicken and junket can be given in addition to the diet suggested for the first day.

On the third day, after the bowels have functioned, the patient should return to her normal diet.

The old principle of enforcing the recumbent position during the pueral period is not in accord with modern obstetric practice, as early ambulation even on the first or second day postpartum tends to increase muscle tone, involution, promotes circulation, and facilitates escape from the uterus. This dictum is diametrically opposed to the former view that the supine posture and immobility were of great importance in favoring uterine involution and preventing the "displacements."

Lactation. — Discussion. — Nutrition in the postnatal period is important not only for the mother and infant but in the restoration of muscles, bones, fibroligamentous structures and the uterus. The diet of the nursing mother must be sufficient in caloric value to supply her own needs and those of her infant and in addition should provide sufficient reserve in case of emergency. Dietary studies made upon women during lactation indicated that whenever the mother's diet fell below a certain minimum, the milk was affected in consequence, either in quality or quantity, particularly the latter. It is of paramount importance that the forcing of fluids be constantly avoided upon.

When the amount of protein intake is reduced, a marked reduction in the quantity of milk results almost immediately. Eighty-five grams of milk is preferable to 120 grams daily is advised. Restricted carbohydrates produce very little change, if any, in either the quantity or quality of the milk until they fall below 50 percent of the total calories ingested, at which time there is a rapid drop in the amount of milk secreted. Reduction of fat content has no effect upon the secretion of milk, either directly or indirectly, until a minimum of approximately one gram per kilogram of body weight is reached; then both the quantity as well as the fat content of the milk will be lessened. Mineral ash has little if any effect on the quantity, but it does alter the quality of the milk. The quantity and richness of the milk therefore depend chiefly on the protein content.

The conversion of food protein into milk protein by the secretory mechanism of the woman is only about 50 to 60 per cent efficient. It is necessary, therefore, to supply an additional amount of food protein, approximately 2 grams for every gram of milk protein secreted; *e. g.*, a woman secreting 800 to 900 grams of milk daily should supplement 20 to 25 grams of protein daily, supplied by meat, eggs and milk products.

The vitamin content of the milk depends upon the amount of the substances furnished by the diet because the body does not synthesize vitamins. During lactation the drain on calcium and phosphorus often is severe. The need for calcium is easily supplied

by the ingestion of $1\frac{1}{2}$ quarts of milk a day. In multiparas, rapidly succeeding pregnancies, there is a tendency to poor retention of calcium and phosphorus, regardless of the intake if adequate vitamin D is furnished. It has been claimed by many that the demand for vitamin C is greater during pregnancy and lactation.

Infant's Daily Fuel Requirements During Nursing Period.

<i>Months.</i>	<i>Calories per pound</i>
Up to 3	60
3 to 6	50
6 to 9	45
9 to 12	40

Fuel Requirement of Nursing Mother.

For mother	2400 Calories
For infant of 12 pounds	600 Calories
Plus energy lost in converting food into mother's milk	60 Calories
	<hr/>
	3060 Calories

than in the non-pregnant woman. This vitamin is derived from fresh fruit, particularly oranges, lemons and limes, tomatoes, fresh or canned. Vitamin A is likewise essential. It is available in cream, butter and fish-liver oils. Of the mineral elements, calcium is obtained from milk and vegetables; phosphorus from milk and eggs; iron from lean meats, eggs, fruits and vegetables. Refer elsewhere for vitamin requirements during lactation.

Typical Menu for the Lactation Period.

Morning or midmorning:

One tablespoon brewer's yeast powder in one-half glass of milk

Breakfast:

Fresh fruit

Cooked whole grain cereal with milk and sugar

Egg

Whole grain toast or roll with butter

Milk or hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar

Midmorning or midafternoon:

Buttermilk, milk or eggnog

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup

Eggs or cheese

Cooked vegetable

Raw vegetable salad with dressing

Whole grain bread with butter

Stewed fruit

Milk

Typical Menu.—(*Continued.*)

er:
 at or fish
 ato
 ked vegetable
 and with dressing
 ole grain bread with butter
 ple dessert; fruit or cheese and crackers
 lk
 me:
 lk or cocoa with graham crackers

the elimination of nicotine by lactating breasts confirmed by bio-
 il tests has been demonstrated.

that deleterious effect, if any, this has on the infant is still sub-
 to further investigation. It would therefore be advisable to
 ail smoking during the nursing period to prevent any possible
 fects on the baby due to absorption by the nursing infant.

Pyelic Inflammatory Diseases.—**Discussion.**—Clinical and labora-
 investigations have demonstrated that an elevation of 1° C.
 body temperature causes an average increase of 13 per cent in
 metabolic rate. The old doctrine of "starving a fever" is
 amentally erroneous. The total energy required at such a
 is always greater than in health; the higher the temperature,
 greater the need for food. A diet which does not furnish enough
 gy to provide heat production sufficient for the needs of the
 ent forces her to live at the expense of her own tissues.

patients with fever can usually take the amount of food they
 ire without detriment and whenever possible 3000 to 4000
 ories a day should be given. The carbohydrates will contribute
 tly to the maintenance of the energy value of the diet. If they
 not well tolerated or easily digested, the quantity of the fats may
 gradually increased. The vitamin intake should be augmented
 apeutically if necessary. Refer to section on Vitamins.

ourishment should be given in small quantities at frequent
 rvals. It must be served in a palatable form after careful selec-
 , and wherever possible in accordance with the patient's desires.
 ilk may be used in abundance but should not be relied upon as
 sole article of diet. The foods most useful are milk, cream, eggs,
 and or toast, crackers, well-cooked and bran-free cereals, rice, well-
 ked potatoes, butter, milk sugar, bacon, cane sugar, tea, coffee,
 oa, apple sauce, strained fruits, cereals and vegetables, orange
 e, lemonade and grape juice. Meats may be allowed, in small
 ntities, once daily, and preferably at midday.

Refer to Febrile Conditions for appropriate diets.

Leukoplakia.—**Definition.**—Chronic atrophic inflammatory con-
 on affecting either the entire vulva or a small area thereof char-
 rized by the formation of whitish plaques of thickened epidermis,
 a sclerosis of the subjacent connective tissue and absence of
 tic fibers producing a parchment-like consistence of the affected

skin. (Taussig) Wolbach and Howe have demonstrated that continued absence of vitamin A from the diet the most prominent changes following this deficiency is a transition in which the normal epithelium in various parts of the body is replaced by keratinized epithelium. In 1922 Evans and Bishop found a persisting cornification of epithelial cells present in the vaginal smears of rats who had been oophorectomized previously during a diet test in which vitamin A was pathologically deficient or entirely absent. Relief and even cure of keratosis follicularis (Darier's Disease) ichthyosis and other types of keratotic skin conditions are frequently reported in the literature. This would serve to indicate the basis for the treatment of Leukoplakia Vulvae with vitamin A.

Clinical studies in other fields have demonstrated the relationship existing between HCl deficiency of the gastric contents and the low plasma level of vitamin A. Premature infants have little or no free HCl in the stomach with a concomitant low plasma of vitamin A and improvement takes place after the administration of lactic acid milk. In certain diseases of adult life such as carcinoma of the stomach, or pernicious anemia, the plasma level of vitamin A may be very low and in some cases the vitamin is entirely absent.

Leukoplakia patients appear to have either a deficiency of vitamin A in the foods as taken orally or some interference with its absorption after ingestion. With this thought in mind the author recently published a method for the relief and possible cure of leukoplakia of the vulva. The schedule of treatment is as follows:

1. A diet rich in vitamin A (See list of foods rich in vitamin A)
2. Intramuscular injection of 250,000—500,000 Units of Vit. A biweekly
3. Oral administration of 100,000-200,000 Units of Vit. A daily in divided doses
4. Fifteen drops of dilute HCl in water three times daily

The results have been encouraging, warranting further study of the relation between vitamin A deficiency and Leukoplakia.

Pre-operative Diet for Gynecological Patients.—Discussion.—The pre-operative preparation of the gynecological patient, except in special instances, differs in no way from that of any candidate for abdominal surgery.

Gynecological operations are usually elective and there is ample time for proper preparation. It has been well said that the best pre-operative preparation is "a pitcher of water and a box of candy!" Extra salt should also be provided. The patient's normal habits should be respected and the reserve of physical strength fortified. The increased ingestion of fluids should be started three days before admission to the hospital and should continue to within three hours of operation, to compensate for the loss of body fluid incidental to anesthesia and possible loss of blood during a protracted operation. Depletion of the tissues can be avoided by the use of gentle laxatives and enemas. The use of morphine and atropine sulphate should be restricted so far as practicable, and many gynecologists are now advocating some of the more recently available sedative preparations as substitutes.

Consideration should be given to the patient's diet several days in advance. The customary food intake should be supplemented with carbohydrates. Special attention should also be given to the prevention of constipation and the formation of gas. In the asthenic, undernourished and highly neurotic patient, a high-calorie diet is indicated. In the obese there should be no attempt to reduce weight rapidly; a sustaining diet, with cautious stimulation of the secretories and cleansing of the gastro-intestinal tract with ememas is desirable.

The normal stomach is empty of all food four to six hours after ingestion, and there is no necessity for unduly withholding food for a longer period prior to operation. If the operation is scheduled for the morning, a regular supper may be given; if for the early afternoon, a light breakfast is permissible. These principles apply to all abdominal or vaginal operations and conditions unattended by complications or fever. When fever is due to remote abnormal conditions, the diet appropriate for febrile disorders should be followed.

The ingestion of salt pre-operatively will lead to increased tissue retention of fluids which in turn will obviate the administration of additional fluids post-operatively.

The following diet is suggested for use on the day previous to operation:

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

- Glass of orange juice (chilled)
- Oatmeal with skim milk and 2 teaspoonfuls of sugar
- Hot biscuits with limited butter and honey
- Cocoa

Luncheon:

- Poached egg in center of mashed potato without butter
- Lima beans (not buttered)
- Average size lettuce salad with Thousand Island dressing
- Tapioca pudding with fruit sauce
- Hot rolls with limited butter
- Milk, buttermilk or malted milk

Dinner:

- Fruit cup
- Broiled lean fish with lemon
- Potato salad on lettuce with French dressing
- Creamed corn
- Toast, limited butter
- Ice-cream or water ice, fruit flavor
- Milk

NOTE.—The patient should be urged to take water liberally throughout the twenty-four hours preceding operation.

Post-operative Diet for Gynecological Patients.—Discussion. —The post-operative dietary regulation for the gynecological patient is

primarily dependent upon her general condition, the type and duration of operation performed and the state of the stomach after recovery from anesthesia.

If the patient has been prepared in accordance with the principles outlined under pre-operative preparation, her condition is usually good, and in uncomplicated cases the early allowance of food tends to stimulate peristalsis and thus serve as a prophylactic in the development of paralytic ileus. The feeding problem is to meet existing conditions, compensate rapidly for the loss of body fluid, and give a diet not only suitable but also acceptable to the patient. Articles of food likely to cause fermentation, with subsequent flatulence and distention, should be shunned. Refer to *Flatulence Producing Foods*.

The administration of foods high in caloric value is desirable so that extra nutrition is provided and thus expedites convalescence. Protein, carbohydrates, fats, fluids and salts must be judiciously combined. The rapidity of increase in the daily menu depends upon the well-being of the patient, but an endeavor should be made to resume a regular diet in the shortest time compatible with gastro-intestinal tolerance. Fluids should be given and increased as early as possible.

Regional, spinal and local anesthesia produce less gastro-intestinal disturbance than general anesthesia. Hence, fluids and nutriment can be given earlier and increased more rapidly than after inhalation anesthesia.

There are many who adhere to a routine as follows, in cases where a general anesthetic has been given:

First Day.—No food is necessary other than small quantities of water at short intervals. Hot tea and mouth rinsing with lemon or orange juice and glycerin or sweetened water are useful.

Second Day.—Broth, tea, saltines, toast, Zwieback, custard, gelatin preparations, junket.

Third Day.—Soft diet. Refer to page 185.

Fourth Day.—Regular diet.

Following the use of **regional or spinal anesthesia**, the withholding of food is unnecessary.

First Day.—Fluids are given at short intervals, especially hot tea or coffee with sugar. A semi-soft diet may be immediately instituted. Refer to *Fluid Foods* and *Soft Foods*.

Second Day.—The patient may be given a soft or regular diet, depending on the operation performed and her general condition.

Sufficient time and extended experience has proven the value of early ambulation following gynecological operations. Instead of the protracted, gradual restoration to normalcy following the usual period of bed rest post-operatively, there is a rapid return to normal physical condition without the usual drawbacks of the older method. This in itself is proof sufficient that early ambulation is in accord with our present knowledge of the after effects of surgical operations and their alleviation. Withholding of food postoperatively longer than is necessary is detrimental to the rapid recovery of the patient.

ed in proper amount and quality is paramount in facilitating the return to health. Each case must be treated according to conditions present in the individual patient and the type of operation performed. It is therefore advisable to administer a normal diet as far as possible, even in the first postoperative day irrespective of type of anesthesia used, unless contraindications make this impossible.

Constipation is a troublesome complication frequently encountered in the post-operative patient. Manipulation of the gastrointestinal tract followed by confinement to bed tends to promote distention of the colon and difficulty in evacuation. It is, therefore, necessary that the regular diet contain sufficient roughage and the following foods are suggested to be included in the daily menu: Leafy vegetables, such as lettuce, spinach, cabbage, cauliflower, parsnips, tomatoes, onions and legumes. Fruits, such as apples, pears, oranges and grapes. Figs, raisins and prunes served either raw or cooked. Honey and preserved fruits. Fats, such as bacon, lard, cream, butter and oil dressings. Whole wheat bread. Bran. Milk. Further dietary details are to be found under Atonic Constipation. Since most gynecological operations are confined to the pelvis and often involve the urinary bladder, it is wise to catheterize the patient at eight-hour intervals for the first three days and once daily for three days after the patient has voided. This prevents accumulation of residual urine and overdistention of the bladder. Urinary antiseptics, such as hexamethylenamin and acid sodium phosphate, are given with an abundance of water. These measures are particularly indicated and necessary after hysterectomy and plastic repair operations on the anterior vaginal wall.

HAY FEVER.

Refer to page 220.

HEMOPHILIA.

Discussion.—It is debatable whether diet has any influence on hemophilia. As a rule, serum calcium is normal in hemophilia though calcium deficiency has been reported on rare occasions. Inasmuch as the diet of the average individual is so frequently inadequate with reference to calcium, it is suggested that high calcium intake be instituted until a more rational dietetic regimen can be devised.

Those foods which, upon analyses, yield a high-calcium percentage follow:

Almonds, filberts, hazel nuts, walnuts.

Cheese, milk, skim milk, malted milk, buttermilk, eggs, egg-yolks, dried milks, evaporated milks, condensed milk, goat's milk, ice-cream.

Strawberries, oranges, pineapples, figs, pears, cherries, olives, strawberries, gooseberries, currants, huckleberries.

Cocoa, molasses, gelatin, maple syrup.

Atmeal, cornmeal, wheat flour, Boston brown bread.

Oysters, clams, salmon, pickerel.

Pork (fresh or smoked), bacon.

Savoy cabbage, cauliflower, onions, lettuce, radishes, celery, bage, cabbage greens, endives, spinach, asparagus, carrots, rabi, turnips, rhubarb, artichokes, pumpkin, lentils, cucum tomatoes, beans, turnip tops, Swiss chard, broccoli, dand greens, endive.

Milk and milk preparations, egg-yolk, eggs and cheese are accepted being the highest calcium-bearing edible items available.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit

Whole grain cereal with milk and sugar

Egg

Whole grain toast or rolls with butter

Milk or hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup

Eggs or cheese

Cooked vegetables

Salad with dressing

Whole grain bread with butter

Fresh or stewed fruit

Milk or cocoa

Dinner:

Meat or fish

Cooked vegetables

Salad with dressing

Whole grain bread with butter

Simple dessert or cheese and crackers

Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

HEMORRHAGE, GASTRIC.

CLARENCE FULLER, M. D.

The dietary procedure in gastric hemorrhage from causes other than ulcer for the first twenty-four to forty-eight hours is not subject to much controversy. It consists in withholding all food whether fluid or solid. In cases of good nutrition and where operation is obtained, the sucking of cracked ice and the expectoration of the fluid accumulated in the mouth can frequently allay the associated thirst. The chewing of gum may accomplish the same purpose.

Commonly, due to dehydration, artificial means of supplying fluid to the body and combatting shock may have to be instituted. The measures may be parenteral administration of glucose and saline by hypodermoclysis or infusion; transfusion; and intravenous plasma.

HEPATITIS.

Refer to page 441.

HEMORRHOIDS.

Refer to page 503.

HIRSCHSPRUNG'S DISEASE.

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Discussion.—Hirschsprung's disease is a form of habitual constipation in young children caused by enormous congenital hypertrophy and dilatation of the lower portion of the colon. At times, the colon increases in length.

Constipation is the earliest symptom and may be present from birth. Spontaneous evacuation of the bowel is rare. It is not infrequent for evacuation to occur no more than once a week, and cases have been reported where it took place only once a month. The fecal accumulations attain great size and at times acquire a stone-like consistency. Their passage is so difficult that it splits the anal sphincter, and the child in fear of pain repels all desire for defecation. Associated with this persistent constipation is abdominal distention, which may be found as early as a day or two after birth, or it may be delayed for weeks or months.

In recent years, surgical treatment has been tried but has resulted in a mortality rate of 40 to 50 per cent.

Wherever possible, conservative dietetic treatment is indicated and must be aimed at complete digestion of food, so that the enterocolon will be small. Infants should be nursed as long as possible; for older children the usual methods of treating constipation are recommended. In addition, foods which stimulate peristalsis other than by their bulk should be given. Buckstein has recommended a diet in which there is "A restriction of animal protein and a diet high in residue." This is exactly the opposite of what the author believes is the normal diet for these cases. The food must be non-constipating, leave no residue and no bulk. Foods with high vitamin B value are somewhat laxative, and, therefore, should be incorporated into the diet. (Refer to "Smooth" Diet for Constipation, and Foods Rich in Vitamin B.)

Suggestions.—When correctly employed, massage is helpful and should be administered for five or ten minutes after retiring and before rising. A fair amount of general muscular exercise is necessary and should be made a part of the treatment in every case. Special exercises for the development of the abdominal muscles should be thoroughly carried out.

Cathartics are contraindicated, but various types of enemata, especially, oil enemata, have proved efficacious in many instances. Proper posture during evacuation is of some importance; a low seat or nursery chair or chamber is better than a high one.

HYPERACIDITY, GASTRIC.

CLARENCE FULLER, M.D.

Discussion.—Gastric hyperacidity is due to an excess of free hydrochloric acid in the gastric juice. It is probably true that over

one-half of the patients who consult physicians because of gastric troubles have this condition. The cause which is responsible for the excessive acidity should be the guide in selecting a diet. When the cause is undetermined, the following principles should be observed:

Avoid foods which act as a stimulant to the glands of the stomach, such as acids, spices, coffee, tea, condiments, alcohol and foods extremely hot or cold; administer fats (cream, sweet butter, etc.) to diminish gastric secretion; prohibit smoking and the chewing of tobacco.

In brief, the diet should be of a bland nature, incapable of producing further increase of hydrochloric acid and capable of reducing the already present superacidity.

The foods allowed are milk, cream, sweet butter, eggs, fine cereals, toast, baked potatoes, rice, macaroni, spaghetti, arrowroot, tapioca and cornstarch.

The leafy vegetables, from clinical experience, have proved somewhat acid-producing in the stomach and for this reason should be avoided wherever possible.

Omit.

Alcohol	Highly seasoned foods
Bouillon	Leafy vegetables
Broths, clam, beef, mutton or chicken	Meats in general, meat extracts, meat jellies
Carbonated beverages	Raw fruits
Coffee and coffee substitutes	Salad dressings
Condiments	Spiced, smoked, salted, brined, pickled and corned foods (except ham and bacon)
Excessively cold foods	Tea
Excessively hot foods	Tomatoes
Fruit juices	Vegetable juices
High-acid foods, such as citrus products, etc.	

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Stewed fruit
Cereal with cream and sugar
Toast or rolls with butter
Milk or hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup
Choice: potato, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti, vermicelli with
butter
Choice: eggs, cottage or cream cheese
Bread with butter
Stewed fruit
Milk

Typical Menu.—(Continued.)

er:
 small serving white fish, bacon or chicken
 potato
 cooked vegetable, other than leafy
 bread with butter
 simple dessert
 milk

Suggestions.—It must be borne in mind that clinically it is often possible to differentiate the symptoms caused by other agents which do not respond to alkali therapy. Gastric analyses occasionally reveal hypochlorhydria when the presenting symptoms suggest hyperchlorhydria. In gall-bladder disease, low normal findings or hypoacidity is more frequently encountered than hyperacidity.

It has been ably demonstrated that protein, upon ingestion, combines with the hydrochloric acid of the stomach. Hence, theoretically, it seems indicated to advocate a high-protein diet for a patient suffering from hyperchlorhydria. The recognized foods rich in protein are egg-white, gelatin, cheese, fish and meat. Clinically, it has been found that the recommendation of these foods in a diet for hyperchlorhydria is impractical and does not alleviate the complained-of symptoms of the patient. It is barely possible that the interpretation of the discrepancy between the theoretical and clinical proposals is due to the fact that meat and fish are received to the stomach in a physical condition such as to render the protein unattackable by the already excessive amount of hydrochloric acid. The previously noted menu has limited amounts of protein in the form of meat and fish.

From a practical and clinical standpoint it has been found that, of all the meats, smoked ham is best tolerated in the presence of "acid stomach." Reference can be made to Bland Foods, Convalescent Ulcer Diet and Alcoholism for further diet suggestions.

HYPERCHOLESTEREMIA.

Refer to page 384.

HYPERTENSION—ESSENTIAL

In this very common disease an elevated blood pressure exists without any accompanying anatomic or functional pathology. All changes that occur seem to be secondary to the blood pressure, and not the cause of it. Under these circumstances, it becomes necessary to devote a good deal of attention to the diet. There are many traditions concerning the influence of proteins, especially those derived from red meats, on blood pressure. These have been proved to rest on hearsay only and it is now found that proteins may be given with impunity to hypertensive individuals without causing a rise in the arterial tension. This is true for short periods of feeding

(Mosenthal, and Strouse and Kelman), as well as for prolonged restricted high-protein diets (Lieb). It is very interesting to note in this connection that a large group of persons like the Greenland Eskimos can live on a purely carnivorous diet without exhibiting increased tendency toward vascular hypertensive or renal disease (Thomas).

An important point in the dietetic management of cases of hypertension that are overweight is the restriction of the fats and carbohydrates. These foods are the principal reason for the development of obesity, which is more to be dreaded than any other effect of diet in this disease. The patient who is overweight puts an enormous burden on the heart which can be readily avoided if the average weight, or less, is maintained. In other words, an anti-obesity diet will not increase blood pressure and thus will not be harmful. On the other hand, it will render the patient less vulnerable to the influence of salt and the hazards of hypertension.

The question of fluids has frequently been discussed with the result that an increased blood volume will have a tendency to raise the arterial tension. By practical experience it has been demonstrated that fluids taken in amounts up to 6 quarts a day do not influence the blood pressure (Orr and Innes). Since the usual fluid intake per day is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 quarts, there is probably nothing to be gained by limiting or restricting the amounts of fluid in the diet.

The restriction of sodium chloride has been advocated as a means of controlling a high blood pressure. Allen and Sherrill have published extensive observations on this subject. They found that a salt-free diet reduced the blood pressure as well as the symptoms for which it was responsible. This is especially true of the palpitation, dyspnea, angina pectoris, edema and anasarca. The beneficial effect of removing as much salt as possible from the diet in order to check the cardiac symptoms has been a common experience, and it is believed that restriction of sodium chloride in the food is very much indicated in the treatment of hypertension.

In summary, it may be stated that a diet should be aimed at which maintains the patient at a normal weight, that is, does not contain an excess of carbohydrate or fat, contains sufficient protein to maintain the hemoglobin and red cells at a normal level but not above it, and allows the usual amount of fluids customary in the average diet. While coffee, tea, and other condiments are not prohibited, the patient should be cautioned against their excessive use.

Rice and Fruit Diet for Hypertension.—Walter Kempner has advocated a dietary treatment for hypertensive states which may or may not be associated with demonstrable nephritis. This diet contains no animal protein and is limited to rice, fruit and fruit juice with vitamin and iron supplements. The objective evidence of improvement which he reports is a significant drop in blood pressure, a decrease in the size of the heart, a lowering of nitrogen and cholesterol blood levels, an improvement in electrocardiographic abnormalities and an improvement in the changes of the retinal arteries.

DIET RECOMMENDED BY KEMPNER

2000 calories

60 gms. P 20 gms. F 5 gms. Sodium 0.2 gms.

Fluid intake restricted to 1000 cc (fruit juice)

— 8 to 10 oz. (dry ordinary rice) cooked without salt or milk, be steamed in fruit juice or plain water.

Fruit—Fresh or preserved (except nuts, dates, avocados).

Fruit juices permitted except tomato juice.

Rice—Brown or white as desired.

Boil rice slowly to boiling water and boil for twenty minutes, through a colander, wash with hot water. If wet rice is preferred omit washing with hot water. Rice can then be steamed for fifteen minutes. Serve with fruit or fruit juice.

After satisfactory improvement has been noted patient may add leguminous vegetables, lean meat, chicken or fish, eggs. No oil or fat.

It is well to supplement the diet with a general vitamin preparation and with iron tablets.

HYPOACIDITY, GASTRIC.

CLARENCE FULLER, M. D.

Discussion.—Gastric hypoacidity is a condition in which there is an absence or deficiency of hydrochloric acid in the gastric secretion. There may be a slight reduction in, or a complete absence of this secretion. Subtotal acidity and achylia gastrica are frequently associated with certain types of gastritis, gastric carcinoma, secondary and pernicious anemia, influenza and severe infectious diseases. Commonly, it is encountered among elderly people with no demonstrable etiology.

It is well recognized that gastric hypoacidity is generally but a symptom of some underlying disease. Hence, the prescription of a diet is purely symptomatic and will tend toward the alleviation of the complained-of symptoms on the part of the patient, but in no wise will correct the etiology. The suggestions are:

1. Give broths, meat extracts and stock soups as stimulants to the gastric secretion. These foods should be served as attractively as possible to stimulate not only the physical gastric secretion but also the mental desire for food.

2. Increase the protein content of the food but give only those foods which are most easily digested. In this way the patient is enabled to receive a sufficient daily allowance of protein consistent with the establishment of a proper nutritional maintenance. As noted elsewhere, average protein consumption is only 45 to 55 grams *per* *capite*. An increase over this amount can and should readily be accomplished.

3. Fats should be given in moderate quantities. The excessive use of fats tends to increase the fatty acid content and *per se* may lead to gastric symptoms.

4. Carbohydrates should be given in moderation, especially starches. As a rule, salivary digestion in these cases will continue longer than normal.

5. Particular care should be taken against bacterial food contaminants, as the natural germicidal action of hydrochloric acid is missing.

6. The ingestion of coffee, coffee substitutes and tea is heartily recommended, owing to their ability to excite hydrochloric acid providing insomnia or other untoward complications do not preclude their use.

7. Meats are recommended. Pickles, anchovies and other salted foods are also approved, if not otherwise contraindicated.

8. In the author's experience the leafy vegetables, which essentially constitute the 3 per cent carbohydrate list, tend to excite excessive gastric hyperacidity and for this reason should be utilized sparingly.

Omit.

Food high in starch such as: Alimentary pastes, rice, sago and potatoes;
potato; puréed tubers
Milk and milk products other than highly fermented cheese
ice-cream, custards and puddings
Stewed fruits
Cereals of the cooked variety

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit juice
Bacon, ham, chipped beef or salt fish
Toast with butter
Coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Bouillon
Lean meat or fish
2 cooked vegetables other than potatoes
Salad with dressing
Bread with butter
Fresh fruit or cheese with crackers
Tea with lemon

Dinner:

Vegetable soup or consommé
Lean meat or fish
2 cooked vegetables
Salad with dressing
Bread with butter
Choice: gelatin, sherbet, water-ice or fruit
Coffee with cream and sugar

Suggestions.—Greater efficacy can be accomplished by the administration of dilute hydrochloric acid before meals than any dietary arrangement.

the event that the gastric acidity should be so increased as to the patient complain of heartburn or water-brash, the most acid foods such as apples, citrus fruits, peaches, pickled foods, etc., should be eliminated.

the elderly, if considered wise, $\frac{1}{2}$ or 1 ounce of spirits can be administered once or twice daily, fifteen minutes prior to meals. By this manner of administration the liquor will tend to stimulate the gastric acid. It has been found in alcoholics in general, that the continued excessive use of alcohol as a beverage diminishes the gastric acid.

HYPOTENSION.

Discussion.—Hypotension is not a disease but a symptom. It is an indication of some general systemic condition. A failing myocardium, acute illnesses, particularly typhoid, diphtheria, the exanthemata, rheumatic fever, influenza, or the convalescence from, are common and capable etiologies. Infrequently, a protein deprivation may prove to be an etiologic factor.

It is uncommon in the general course of practice to come upon cases in which the blood-pressure is sufficiently low to have the hypotension produce symptoms in itself. However, those cases do come to our attention and demand remedial measures. Lowered blood-pressure is not an indication of perfect health and should be regarded as a guide to the general physical tone of the patient.

The restoration of a low blood-pressure to normal consists in the raising of the general body tone. Exercise, prescribed baths, alteration of the general daily regimen and other factors are, in the main, contributory to success.

If any is of proved worth, the diet is similar to that for secondary anemia in which the various minerals and vitamins predominate. Endocrine insufficiencies should not be overlooked as a possible etiology. A high-protein diet, in the presence of a protein deficiency, is indicated. Refer elsewhere for suitable menus.

INFLUENZA.

Discussion.—Owing to the rather short and limited course of influenza, the diet indicated for the early part of the disease should be the absence of diet rather than its prescription. It is suggested that for the first two or three days nothing whatsoever should be eaten, except small quantities of frequently administered liquids in the form of milk, milk preparations, fruit juices or alkalized waters. Whenever possible, sweetened liquids should be ingested in an attempt to offset the generally present acidosis. Refer to Acid Foods.

As is well recognized, anorexia is a most commonly associated symptom and very frequently is exhibited by the patient as, not only a lack of desire to eat, but also the inability to appreciate a normal taste of food.

Commencing the third day, the taking of a full fluid or semi-solid diet should be enforced. The caloric value of this diet should be as high as possible.

As is commonly experienced following a typical influenzal attack there is frequently present a jaded appetite which lasts from one to six weeks. In these instances the proper diet should be regular meals at the usual hours augmented by interval feedings. Investigation of the gastric acid content often reveals further dietary indications.

Omit.

Solid foods throughout the early course of the disease

Limit.

Upon the institution of the high-calorie diet, limit the foods of little or no caloric value. Refer to Carbohydrates in Vegetables and Fruits

CONVALESCENT DIET.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit juice *or* puréed fruit
Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Toast *or* rolls with butter
Milk *or* coffee with cream and sugar

Midmorning:

Eggnog, milk *or* buttermilk

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup
Minced meat *or* eggs, except fried
Puréed vegetable
Bread with butter
Milk *or* tea

Midafternoon:

Fruit *or* vegetable juice with egg white

Dinner:

Minced meat *or* fish
Baked *or* mashed potato
Puréed vegetable
Bread with butter
Simple dessert
Milk *or* coffee

Bedtime:

Milk *or* cocoa

Suggestions.—In the writer's experience many cases suffering from influenza exhibit personal temporary obsessions concerning food. This condition can be likened to that of the pregnant woman. In several instances the sole mainstay of the diet during the acute period have been very hot or very cold milk, sauerkraut juice, pickle juice, tomato juice, etc. The insistence of the taking of other food in these cases has been without avail.

The diet for convalescent pneumonia is also perfectly adaptable to the conditions herewith outlined. For further menus refer to Febrile Conditions.

IRRITABLE COLON, NON-ULCERATIVE COLITIS.

CLARENCE FULLER, M. D.

discussion. — These conditions are the subjects of much confusion and difference of opinion and a diagnosis of one or another is very often made, usually erroneously, because of the confusion and lack of exact knowledge regarding etiology and pathology. In the past years much progress has been made toward differentiating these conditions on the basis of pathology, and it is becoming more generally accepted that they are only different stages in one disease process and that the first two stages, *viz.* constipation and irritable colon, are functional disturbances, with no organic tissue changes, and that the third stage, *viz.* colitis, is an organic disease, in which there are tissue changes, *i.e.* inflammation. In many cases it is impossible to determine from the clinical symptoms, stool examinations and sigmoidoscopic examinations whether or not inflammation is present without examining washings from the bowel mucosa for the presence or absence of a cellular exudate; the absence of a cellular exudate means the absence of inflammation and the presence of a cellular exudate establishes the presence of organic tissue change, namely inflammation.

It should be clearly understood that *atonic* constipation, irritable colon, and colitis are exceedingly rare, and occur only in patients with autonomic imbalance in the form of sympathicotonia, with additional manifestations throughout the body. Atonicity or dilatation may occur in parts or all of the colon in the course of the disease, and differentiation should be made from idiopathic dilatation or Hirschsprung's disease.

The etiology of these conditions is still obscure. According to some, the cause is neurogenic, according to others it is purely local in origin, and still others claim it is allergic in origin. The writer believes that the onset is due to improper dietary and hygienic habits, in a vagotonic individual, which lead to the use of cathartics, enemas, and irritations, resulting in the colonic dysfunction.

Associated with the colonic disturbances are many reflex symptoms, neurotic symptoms, and impairment of general health.

Clinically, tenderness may be exhibited over any part of or all of the colon, with disturbed bowel function, as a rule constipation. The presence of mucus in the stools which was formerly considered by some to be the *sine qua non* for establishment of diagnosis, and which led to such terms as "mucous colitis", etc., is now recognized as the normal reaction of the mucous membrane to irritation from whatever cause, and does not mean the presence of inflammation.

Divergence of opinion exists as to the dietetic management of these conditions and this has led to unnecessary confusion. The colon, being already spastic, contraindicates the institution of a spasm-producing diet, such as one high in roughage, and this type of diet will aggravate the existing condition. It is obvious, therefore, that in the cases of atonic colon, the opposite type of dietetic therapy is indicated, and all of the foods which are eliminated from the diet in a

patient with a spastic colon because of their ability to produce irritating bulk, should be added to the diet.

The author has found the diet schedule which follows to be effective in the management of almost all cases of colon disorders which occur in either private practice or hospital work, except the cases of fulminating ulcerative colitis, from overactivity as evidenced by diarrhea, to underactivity, as evidenced by constipation. Diet No. 1 is almost pure carbohydrate, low fat, low protein, low residue, and from this there is a gradual addition of protein, and bulk, in the form of vegetables and fruits, to the No. 7 diet which is a maintenance diet for any average individual. These diets are deficient in vitamins and minerals and these should be supplied in the form of one of the standard potent vitamin-mineral preparations. The fruit or tomato juice may not be well tolerated, but it is well to try them early in the dietetic regimen and discontinue them if there is a digestive upset. Usually four or five days on each diet is necessary before progressing to the next, and if the digestion is disturbed after the change, return to the previous simpler diet until it is thought wise to again attempt an addition.

Progressive Bland Diets.

Bland Diet No. 1

Breakfast:

Cooked cereal such as strained oatmeal, cream of wheat, farina, hominy, wheatena, with cream and a little sugar.

White bread, plain or oven-made toast with butter.

Kaffee Hag, Sanka Coffee or other coffee substitute; cream and sugar as desired.

10:00 A.M.

Toast, Holland Rusk, Zwiebach, with butter.

Ovaltine or a similar drink made with water and a little cream added to taste.

Dinner:

Plain boiled rice, macaroni, spaghetti, vermicelli, or noodles with butter added at the table or a little chicken gravy, tomato or mushroom sauce.

White bread or toast with butter.

Plain dessert such as rice, sago, tapioca, farina or bread pudding, custard, junket, or plain gelatin with cream.

4:00 P.M.

Same as 10:00 A.M.

Supper: Like Breakfast.

Bland Diet No. 2

Same as Diet No. 1 plus:

Dinner:

White meat of chicken or turkey or heart of one lamb chop, or a little roast lamb, or fresh fish.

Bland Diet No. 3

Same as Diet No. 2 plus:

Breakfast:

Creamed soups.

Roast beef (roast, steak, chuck steak ground, broiled prime ribs, sirloin, pot roast), Ham.

Baked, boiled or mashed potatoes.

Stewed vegetables such as —spinach, carrots, string beans, peas, small lima beans, celery, squash, tender young onions, beets, beet greens, asparagus tips.

Bland Diet No. 4

Same as Diet No. 3 plus:

Breakfast:

Stewed fruit such as, prunes, pears, cherries, peaches, apricots, baked apples or apple sauce.

Dinner:

Vegetable soup without the vegetables.

Bland Diet No. 5

Same as Diet No. 4 plus

Breakfast:

One soft boiled or poached egg, or three slices of lean bacon, but not both.

Dinner:

Plain cooked vegetables such as: spinach, carrots, string beans, peas, small lima beans, celery, squash, tender young onions, beets, beet greens, asparagus tips.

Bland Diet No. 6

Same as Diet No. 5 plus:

Breakfast:

Prepared cereals such as: puffed rice, rice krispies, puffed wheat, corn flakes, or shredded wheat.

Dinner:

Once daily take raw vegetables such as: hearts of lettuce, endive, romaine, swiss chard, or water cress; also ripe tomatoes or hearts of celery; olive oil and lemon juice with a little salt as dressing.

Bland Diet No. 7

Same as Diet No. 6 plus:

Breakfast:

Raw fruit once daily such as: pears, cherries, peaches, apples, oranges, tangerines, grapefruit, grapes or a ripe banana.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS

1. Eat your meals at regular hours. Take sufficient time for your meals, eat slowly and chew your food thoroughly.
2. Do not eat when very tired or nervous, but sit or lie down for fifteen minutes and rest before going to the table.
3. Whenever possible lie down for three-quarters of an hour after a small meal and for one hour after a large meal, with a hot water bag on the stomach.
4. Avoid strictly all fried foods, hashes, made-over dishes, highly seasoned foods, rich sauces, pepper, spices and condiments. Avoid shellfish, eggs and milk except as occur in cooking. Avoid liver, kidney, sweetbreads, bone-marrow. Avoid smoked or cured fish, coarse fruits, and vegetables such as: broccoli, pickles, cucumbers, raw onions, turnips, cabbage, Brussels sprouts, corn, cauliflower, sweet potatoes.
5. Never butter toast while hot, and allow it to stand.
6. Do not drink water immediately before eating. Take no iced water or iced drinks. Take in all four to six glassfuls of water between meals each twenty-four hours.
7. Be out-of-doors as much as possible every day.
8. Avoid tobacco and alcohol in any form.
9. Secure at least eight hours sleep every night.
10. Adequate vitamin intake should be maintained by taking some good multiple vitamin preparation such as multicebrin or therapeutic formula vitamin capsule.

Suggestions.—Many food manufacturers now prepare strained fruits and vegetables and cooked, diced or pureed meats for infant feeding. Such preparations are entirely acceptable in the above diet schedules, can be readily obtained, and save a great deal of culinary time and labor.

The preceding menus may be varied greatly to meet existing conditions. The presence of obesity or asthenia will necessitate modification, with a reduction or an increase of caloric value. The presence of increased or decreased gastric hydrochloric acid may also require modification, in which case reference to the list of foods decreasing or increasing gastric acidity should be made and the menu modified accordingly. The presence of anemia will require higher protein as well as the introduction of hematopoietic foods.

The question of constipation is of paramount importance. The use of active catharsis is emphatically contraindicated. As a general rule, with the alleviation of spasticity, the bowel function is helped, but it is usually necessary, especially in the early stages of therapy, to supply additional non-irritating bulk in the form of agar-agar or a similar preparation. Occasional, judicious use of cleansing and retention oil enemata, and rarely a colonic irrigation, if properly given, are of service. If the stools are very hard and irritating, a small amount of mineral oil, one or two teaspoonfuls, at night, is helpful as a lubricant, but mineral oil must be used sparingly, as recent investigation has definitely established the fact that it is absorbed from the

stinal tract and may have toxic effects, as well as interfering with absorption of foods and vitamins from the small intestines. Bran is contraindicated in the treatment of spastic bowel conditions, for while it may stimulate peristalsis and lessen the actual constipation it is indigestible in the human gastrointestinal tract, and is subject to chemical and bacterial disintegration in the colon, with resulting fermentation and gaseous distention. In association with these bowel disorders there is almost invariably an underlying neurosis, which promotes fastidious dietary tendencies. This necessitates judicious care in the serving as well as the preparation of the various prescribed meals. Small rather than large portions, with frequent feedings, will appeal to the jaded appetite. Aside from diet and regimen, there are two important factors in the treatment of these conditions,—an antispasmodic, such as belladonna or one of its derivatives, or one of the newer synthetic preparations, and a sedative, such as one of the barbiturates. The author's preference is a capsule containing $\frac{1}{8}$ grain each of the extract of belladonna and phenobarbital, one capsule to be taken after each meal and at bedtime; in his experience this has proved to be the most effective of any of the many preparations tried, it is not habit-forming, and only on the rarest occasions will this amount of belladonna cause dryness of the throat or blurring of vision, in a sensitive individual.

Reference can be made to Foods Lowest in Cellulose (roughage) and Bland Foods in order to facilitate further amplification of the genus.

The diet in chronic ulcerative colitis comes in the same category as the conditions heretofore considered, but the diet in acute and/or fulminating ulcerative colitis is a matter for separate consideration.

JAUNDICE.

Refer to page 443.

LACTATION.

Refer to page 419.

LEAD POISONING.

Refer to page 492.

LIVER, CIRRHOSIS OF.

Refer to page 442.

LUPUS ERYTHEMATOSIS AND VULGARIS.

Refer to pages 304 and 297.

LIVER DISEASES.

J. RUSSELL TWISS, M. D.

Discussion.—There is probably no field of internal medicine in which greater recent progress has been made than that of the diseases

of the liver. The concept of liver disease has been simplified by much clinical and investigative experimental work, with improvement in classification, pathology and treatment. Lesions comparable to those of humans have been produced in animals by many investigators, notably Himsworth and Glynn, Rich, Gorgy and Goldblatt, and Whipple. Hoagland has made contributions relative to the classification and management of the acute conditions. The management of the chronic liver conditions has been greatly improved by the pioneer work of Patek and Post.

The present concept of liver disease, which has taken the place of the previously-complex classifications of various types, is that it is fundamentally a damage to the liver cell, regardless of whether the etiologic factor is chemical, physical, bacterial, or viral. The condition may be acute, chronic or healing, as is shown by fibrosis. The classification favored by Hoagland is that of Bloomfield who states that clinically all liver disease may be considered acute or chronic. Among the acute conditions are acute hepatitis and acute yellow atrophy of the liver. Chronic hepatitis may result from an acute condition, or it may come on insidiously. Included under chronic hepatitis are the cirrhoses. The nodular hyperplasia type may follow an acute necrosis of the liver. The portal type of cirrhosis seems to be gradual in onset and to follow in most cases a diffuse fatty infiltration of the liver with a subsequent diffuse hepatic fibrosis.

A brief discussion of the experimental work done in producing liver disease in animals should serve to indicate more clearly the underlying pathology of these conditions in humans. Himsworth and Glynn have demonstrated that the character and degree of liver damage in rats, in which lesions comparable to those of the human have been produced, were dependent upon the qualitative and quantitative restriction of protein in the diet. With a severe restriction of the protein in the diet, acute yellow atrophy and early death were produced in most cases. With lesser restrictions fatty infiltration of the liver was produced; this was followed in the course of time by a diffuse fibrosis of the liver and finally typical portal cirrhosis. These changes could be prevented by the addition to the diet of one of a number of lipotropic substances such as methionine, casein, cystine, choline and Brewers yeast. Similar results have been obtained by other investigators. The practical aspects of the protective value of these substances, particularly protein, have been stressed by Ravdin, Whipple, Rich and others. Deserving of special mention is that the lethal effect of chloroform anesthesia on a protein-depleted dog can be prevented by adequate pre-operative feedings of protein, or by the addition to the diet of equivalent amounts of lipotropic substances.

Clinically, the etiologic factors in acute forms of hepatitis can be determined in most cases with a considerable degree of accuracy. The medical and dietary management is essentially the same in all cases. The etiologic factors of the chronic conditions is more subject to difference of opinion, particularly in regard to the cause of portal

osis. While it is conceded that the condition is common in alcoholics, nevertheless recent work has indicated that portal cirrhosis is primarily a deficiency disease dependent upon protein deficiency. Cirrhosis, associated with dietary deficiency, has been found to be prevalent in countries where little alcohol is available. A large proportion of alcoholics do not develop cirrhosis, the cause of the cirrhosis is considered to be the fact that alcoholics do not eat a sufficient amount of protein. The experimental work previously mentioned has furthermore indicated that the rôle of carbohydrates and vitamins is secondary to that of the proteins. The patients who have been on a diet high in fat and cholesterol, however, especially those who have a low intake of lipotropic substances, have been found to develop fatty infiltration and subsequently portal cirrhosis of the liver. These facts have also been confirmed by animal experiments.

Since the general medical and dietary management of the various types of liver disease is much the same, regardless of etiology, the present discussion will be limited to a few of the more commonly found types of liver conditions. The essential factor in any given case, especially in the presence of jaundice, is to determine whether the condition is medical or surgical. In medical conditions a patient should not be subjected to a hazardous operation, especially if the patient is in a serious condition. On the other hand, obstructive conditions require surgical interference at the earliest possible time to prevent irreparable damage to the liver from back pressure. The proper decision is frequently difficult; it should be based upon a complete and accurate diagnostic investigation, carried out as early in the course of the disease as possible.

Hepatitis, acute.—Among the more prevalent forms of hepatitis are the acute infectious hepatitis and homologous serum hepatitis which usually follow a transfusion or plasma infusion. The acute infectious form is characterized by a prodromal period of fever, nausea, vomiting and symptoms of an infection of the upper respiratory tract, while the onset of the serum jaundice is usually insidious. In all cases a careful history should be taken to rule out the possible factor of toxins or drugs such as cinchophen or arsenic, the possible occupational hazards. Clinically the jaundice is characterized by the onset of dark urine and light colored stools, frequently with pain and tenderness of the right upper quadrant. Laboratory tests which are of diagnostic value are the Harrison spot test for bilirubin in the urine, the galactose tolerance test of Bauer, the cephalin flocculation test of Hanger, and the thymol turbidity test of MacLagan. In the early stages the bromsulphalein test is so useful.

The management of acute hepatitis consists of early and prolonged bed rest, until such time as a full battery of liver function tests indicates that the function of the liver has practically returned to normal. The diet in the early stages of nausea and vomiting is necessarily limited. At this time the patient should be in a hospital, with the liberal use of intravenous glucose and if tolerated protein

hydrolysate. Duodenal drainage is frequently of great assistance, relieving the patient of anorexia, nausea, and vomiting, as well as relieving the back pressure upon the liver which has resulted from inability of the patient to eat. As soon as possible, a diet of fruit juices, cereal, stewed and canned fruits, tea and other easily digestible food is begun. Intermediate feedings of milk are added, the full No. 6 diet being given as soon as possible. Supplemental treatment includes the use of high potency multiple vitamin capsules, injections of crude liver extract intramuscularly, Brewer's yeast powder as tolerated, fluids are forced. For those unable to take Brewer's yeast powder, in dosage of 15 to 30 grams daily, capsules of vitamin B complex are recommended.

Hepatitis, Chronic.—The chronic form of hepatitis may follow the acute form, especially in those not kept in bed for a sufficiently long period of time, or those not adequately treated. The chronic hepatitis may follow an acute or subacute atrophy of the liver, or may begin insidiously on the basis of a fatty infiltration of the liver. The symptoms of chronic hepatitis are frequently indefinite, consisting of jaundice of a low grade which may be intermittent, nausea, vomiting, anorexia, discomfort after meals. Later there may supervene the usual symptoms of cirrhosis of the liver.

The treatment of chronic hepatitis is essentially the same as that previously described for acute hepatitis, with the exception that the intravenous infusions are usually not necessary in the less severe forms of the disease. The diet is of the utmost importance, the full diet of 300 to 400 grams of carbohydrate is necessary, with 150 to 200 grams of protein and as much fat as is indicated and can be tolerated by the patient. The basis of the diet is that listed as Diet No. 6. Supplementing the diet should be some form of vitamin B complex. Two capsules can be taken three times daily. Some prefer the use of Brewer's yeast powder or tablets, large doses of which must be taken to produce the desired effects. Crude liver extract is given intramuscularly, 2 to 4 cc. daily 2 or 3 times a week. High potency multiple vitamins are again indicated. Protein hydrolysate by mouth may be of value.

Cirrhosis of the Liver.—Cirrhosis of the liver is considered to be a form of chronic hepatitis and is treated as such. However, the main difference here is the fact that the cirrhosis is seldom diagnosed until the symptoms have reached a terminal stage at which time the situation is frequently critical and therefore necessitating a much more concentrated form of treatment. The clinical course of these patients is usually that of a preceding period of alcoholism with the indefinite symptoms previously described. With this there is a gradual enlargement of the abdomen, a loss of weight and strength, the onset of a hepatic facies and cachexia, sometimes edema of the ankles and hemorrhages of the gastrointestinal tract. Following these developments there may be nervous symptoms of twitching, irrationality, renal insufficiency, coma and death.

Treatment of these patients should be carried out in the hospital. The tests of liver function previously described are usually positive. Additional tests of value are the serum protein determination, the

tion of the albumin-globulin ratio being of particular significance.

The prothrombin time should be determined in all cases, and the prompt institution of some form of vitamin K therapy if indicated. The terminal event of hemorrhage should be forestalled if possible, for this, large doses of synthetic vitamin K are indicated. Furthermore, there should be an X-ray investigation of the gastrointestinal tract for the purpose of ascertaining the presence of esophageal varices.

The diet is again the high protein, high carbohydrate described as No. 6. Infusions of 5 per cent glucose should be given freely, with the addition of 5 per cent protein hydrolysate if this substance is tolerated by evidence of protein deficiency (and if the patient is able to tolerate it). Large doses of crude liver extract are given intramuscularly. Morrison uses 4 cc. daily for ten days, then gradually lengthens the interval of administration. The high potency multiple vitamins are used, with capsules of vitamin B complex. With large livers, Beams has had good results therapeutically with the use of various lipotropic substances such as methionine, choline and inositol. The final evaluation of these substances awaits further investigation. With a prolonged period of concentrated treatment and the restriction of salt in patients having edema and ascites, the results of treatment have been greatly improved in this group.

Jaundice.—A discussion of the symptoms of jaundice with its differential diagnosis is a problem far beyond the scope of the present book. However, the principle of greatest practical importance is to determine at the earliest possible moment whether the individual under investigation is medical or surgical. The possible presence of hemolytic types of jaundice must of course be considered; here there may be a history of familial jaundice or repeated attacks of jaundice over prolonged periods of time. With this there may be findings of an enlarged spleen. Laboratory tests of significance are the absence of bile and the presence of excessive amounts of urobilinogen in the urine, the increased fragility of the red cells, the presence of spherocytes and a high percentage of reticulocytes in the blood as well as the presence of anemia.

Intrahepatic jaundice may occur with any of the forms of acute or chronic hepatitis previously described. It is more common under the age of forty years, is seldom associated with pruritus, is commonly associated with pain and enlargement and tenderness of the liver, with dark urine and light colored stools. Laboratory tests usually found positive in these conditions are the cephalin flocculation and turbidity tests, an elevation of the serum globulin (with a diminution of the serum albumin), with the intravenous galactose tolerance test there is an increase of the galactose of the blood, an increased serum bilirubin and an increased retention of bromsulphalein.

Extrahepatic obstructive jaundice is more common over the age of forty years. It may occur as the result of a common duct stone, a carcinoma of the head of the pancreas or biliary tract, a chronic cholecystitis, or a number of other less common factors obstructing the common bile duct. It must also be kept in mind, however, that the

obstructive lesion may be within the liver in a limited number of cases. In the early stages of this condition the above tests are usually negative; in the later stages they become positive. Laboratory tests of significance here include an elevation of the alkaline phosphatase of the blood, an elevation of the cholesterol of the blood, and with malignancy of the common bile duct an absence of bile in the duodenum as determined by the duodenal tube under fluoroscopic guidance, and the absence of urobilinogen in the urine.

The dietary treatment of all types of jaundice is to give a high protein and high carbohydrate diet (Diet No. 6), with generous amount of intravenous glucose in acute conditions. Prompt surgical relief of obstruction is essential. Splenectomy is indicated in familial jaundice with splenomegaly and spherocytosis. Medical treatment is indicated in the other conditions in accordance with that outlined for the terminal stages of cirrhosis of the liver.

Finally, a word of precaution should be given relative to the possibility of a pancreatitis causing a jaundice. With acute forms of jaundice, collapse and cyanosis, an acute hemorrhagic form of pancreatitis must be suspected. Here we have usually a transient rise in the serum amylase or lipase with a diminution of pancreatic ferments in the duodenal bile.

Liver Function in Surgery.—In the presence of jaundice impairment of liver function is inevitable. It is also usually present to a greater or lesser degree in those patients who have chronic gall bladder disease, especially if associated with cholelithiasis. The degree of liver impairment should always be determined preoperatively; tests found suitable are the bromsulphalein, the cholesterol and ester ratio, the alkaline phosphatase, and the cephalin flocculation tests. Heyd, Carter and Hotz have shown that careful preoperative preparation of these patients is essential to reduce operative mortality and postoperative morbidity. Those underweight and having cardiac conditions should receive a prolonged course of treatment to build up weight, strength and resistance. Those in acute phases must have intravenous fluids and the other measures of treatment outlined. Intravenous fluids, including the hydrolysates and necessary vitamins, must be given before and after operation. The standard diet is the high protein, high starch diet previously described.

Post-operatively these patients should be fed as soon as circumstances will permit. During the first few days after operation the intravenous use of glucose in 5 per cent solution is indicated; the addition of 5 per cent protein hydrolysate is useful and seems to promote healing as well. After fluids, simple solids of the starchy food are gradually added, gradually resuming a diet which is indicated by the preoperative work-up. The unrestricted diet so frequently prescribed by surgeons who tell the patient "eat anything you want" is probably a potent factor in the creation of the so-called post-cholecystectomy syndrome. Generally speaking, these cases do best when on a bland diet, avoiding fats and fried foods, gravies and roughage. The instruction of the general hygiene of the patient in matters of eating, exercise, and the avoidance of constipation are

rs which are best handled by the internist, who can do much to the post-operative complications so distressing to the patient.

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MALIGNANCY, GASTRO-INTESTINAL.

CLARENCE FULLER, M.D.

Discussion.—The diet in malignancy of the gastro-intestinal tract depends upon the nature and site of the disease and whether it is the obstructive or non-obstructive type.

The principles of the diet are such as to afford the patient as much nutrition as possible, generally in a restricted volume. Coarse foods, foods of hard consistency and foods generally recognized as being indigestible are to be studiously avoided. Specifically, the diet should be soft, highly nutritious and concentrated. The protein content should be maintained at the optimum in order to offset the present or impending anemia.

In cases of obstruction, any food should be omitted which will tend to increase this condition by superimposing spasm. Excessively hot and cold foods, together with those high in roughage, should not be included in the dietary.

As is frequently the case in malignancy of the stomach, there is associated achylia gastrica. The recommendation of acid-inducing foods, together with the administration of dilute hydrochloric acid, is specifically indicated.

With the obstructive type of cancer, irrespective of its site, resort must be made to a concentrated diet. Augmentation by artificial

methods of feeding is often required. Refer to *Supplements*.
Methods of Feeding.

Any specific dietary directed against malignancy, owing to present lack of knowledge of the etiology, cannot help but run itself into an empiricism. Efforts have been made by many compound diets low in nitrogen, low in sulphur, or based on some other suspected metabolic insufficiency. Centanni, an advocate of dietetic treatment of malignancy, has sought to modify the diet by reducing all those substances which promote growth and increasing those which tend to inhibit growth. Beneke found that cancer was more frequent in carnivora than in herbivora and more common among people who ate excessive amounts of meat. A recommendation, based on this observation, suggested food low in nitrogen.

The generally-accepted diet is simple, readily assimilable and rich in protein. The customary anorexia very frequently strains the ingenuity of the practitioner and dietitian.

Naturally, the dietetic recommendation must be of two types for the obstructive and the non-obstructive case.

Omit.

Non-obstructive: Coarse vegetables; foods containing a high starch content; foods which tend to produce a large bolus; foods low in caloric value.

Obstructive: In these instances the diet is limited to liquid and semi-solid foods. As an underlying general principle, it is wise to effect a concentrated liquid diet, hence limiting the volume ingested at any mealtime. This is best accomplished by milk in any form found palatable to the individual. It is frequently found advantageous to augment the milk by the addition of highly concentrated foods, puréed or strained vegetables, eggs, dried milk, protein milk or malted milk. Cream soups to which puréed vegetables have been added are generally well tolerated. Cereals, particularly those served with sugar and cream, command a very high position in the list of recommended items.

Beef extracts, beef jellies and clear broths may be given freely but it must be borne in mind that the caloric value of these items is relatively *nil*. On the other hand, they stimulate gastric acidity to a desirable accomplishment. Seasonings, and condiments likewise stimulate gastric acidity. Fruit juices augmented by addition of sugar are advised. Refer to *Fluid Foods*, *Soft Foods* and *Food Lowest in Water*.

DIET FOR NON-OBSTRUCTIVE TYPE.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit

Cooked cereal with cream and sugar

Egg, bacon or ham

Toast or roll with butter

Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

DIET FOR OBSTRUCTIVE TYPE.—(*Continued.*)*morning:*

or buttermilk

noon:

cream of vegetable soup

ice: meat, fish, eggs or cheese

créed vegetables

served with butter

served fruit

or tea

afternoon:

nougat, milk, ice-cream or junket

evening:

consommé or bouillon

or fish

créed vegetables

served with butter

ice: fruit, gelatin, water-ice or cheese with crackers

or coffee

bedtime:

or milk

DIET FOR OBSTRUCTIVE TYPE.

Typical Menu.

breakfast:

fruit juice

strained cooked cereal with cream and sugar

melba toast, Zwieback or Holland rusk with butter

milk or coffee with cream and sugar

morning:

broth or bouillon with beaten egg

noon:

cream of vegetable soup

soft-cooked egg or minced meat

créed vegetable

créed fruit with cream

afternoon:

buttermilk, milk or cocoa

evening:

strained soup

minced meat or fish

créed vegetables

soft dessert

bedtime:

or milk or cocoa

NOTE.—In the obstructive type, water should always be replaced by some caloric-bearing fluid. No foods should be served excessively hot or cold.

Suggestions.—Vomiting commonly intervenes in the obstructive type. The reduction of the volume of food at each meal together with the prescription of a diet of thicker consistency is indicated.

Vomiting may be caused not only by the organic obstruction, but frequently also by superimposed spasm at the site of the obstruction, or associated pyloric spasm. In the event that it is due to spasm, gastric rest with adequate doses of belladonna tends to overcome this condition.

At times, a six- to twelve-hour rest from feeding accompanied by gastric lavage, arrests vomiting. A daily lavage early in the morning will rid the stomach of any overnight residue thereby aiding the patient to ingest sufficient food for maintenance. Often many patients, due to the gastric distress, suffer from insomnia. If this is attributable to gastric residue, nightly lavage will greatly aid. Refer to Soft Foods and Bland Foods.

MALNUTRITION IN INFANTS AND CHILDREN.

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Malnutrition is a term indicating defective nutrition, manifested by failure of the infant or child to gain weight and to grow as does the average child. It may vary from slight to severe. According to Jeans, normal nutrition indicates that the infant remains within 10 to 15 per cent of the average weight for his age, birth weight and length. As pointed out by Barkorka, however, malnutrition may include many patients from those who are under average weight but in good health to those who are emaciated by starvation or disease. The term *marasmus* is reserved for severe degrees of malnutrition in infancy.

Etiology.—Malnutrition is due to reduction in the quantity of food available to the infant or child below the requirement for normal growth and maintenance. The supply of food may be too small, as in starvation and therapeutic under-feeding, or disease process may reduce the ability of the infant to absorb and utilize the food or may increase the needs of the body for food. Psychogenic factors operate in older children to reduce the food intake while adolescents may deliberately go on reducing diets to avoid obesity.

Starvation.—Partial starvation may be carried out accidentally in infants through improper construction of formulas and improper methods of feeding, but at the present time this is not common in this country. More frequently the starvation is deliberate and carried out in the treatment of diarrhea. In some instances the infant is able to gain on an adequate feeding despite a mild diarrhea but will fail to gain on a reduced feeding even though the diarrhea has been checked. Occasionally an ignorant mother will mistake the instructions and substitute whole milk for evaporated milk or

a and even though she increases the volume of the feeding to meet the infant's hunger, the formula will be so dilute that the infant cannot ingest large enough quantities to satisfy his needs. If the infant is breast fed and failing to gain weight, he should be weighed immediately before and after each feeding for twenty-four hours to determine how much breast milk is being obtained. An occasionally placid infant will not cry when hungry though the quantity of breast milk is actually too small and the infant is failing to gain weight.

Older infants and young children are frequently capricious in their food preferences and dislikes for foods and if they have been sufficiently spoiled may be able to force the parents to feed them an inadequate or unbalanced diet which eventually leads to undernutrition. Coaxing and forcing, which many parents resort to in their attempts to increase the child's intake of food, often lead to persistent vomiting or refusal to eat (See Anorexia and Psychological Aspects of Infant Feeding).

Adolescents, particularly girls, often develop a fear of obesity, particularly if one or both of the parents are unusually obese, and may deliberately reduce the intake of food below their minimal needs.

Gastro-intestinal Disorders.—Chronic disturbances of the gastrointestinal tract lead to profound states of malnutrition, most frequently in infancy. Diarrhea, particularly infectious diarrhea of the newborn, may be very prolonged in its course and marked by severe irritations each time oral feeding is attempted. The nutrition cannot be maintained for days and even weeks under the best pediatric therapy by parenteral feedings of vitamins, minerals, protein, carbohydrate and water in these patients, but frequently malnutrition progresses to marasmus, despite all measures that are taken. Celiac disease of moderate severity quite regularly results in malnutrition, and of severe degree (See Celiac Disease). Chronic ulcerative colitis in older children is similarly a cause of moderate to extreme malnutrition.

Prolonged vomiting in infancy is most commonly associated with pyloric stenosis and pyloric spasm and if medical treatment is not successfully carried out or is prolonged beyond the time when improvement is noted, extreme degrees of malnutrition may result. A patient with pyloric stenosis may also develop a starvation type of diarrhea and therapeutic under-feeding may be instituted to overcome this diarrhea and the malnutrition increased. Rumination generally causes so large a loss of food that nutrition is greatly impaired.

Infections.—Acute infections, no matter how severe, rarely cause significant or prolonged degree of malnutrition in infants and children. Even when they recur frequently, *e. g.*, tonsillitis every three to four weeks, nutrition is usually maintained at a normal level because the child eats well between illnesses. Low grade chronic infections, however, are responsible for many cases of moderate malnutrition. Untreated congenital syphilis, now much less common than it used to be, may cause malnutrition in infants. Much more frequent are infections of the respiratory tract, chronic infected tonsils, hyper-

trophied adenoids, sinusitis, and recurrent asthmatic bronchitis. Ear infections respond quite promptly to chemotherapy and antibiotics and are rarely a cause of malnutrition at the present time. Pyuria, especially in young girls, may be manifested only by anorexia and failure to gain weight and should be searched for by repeated urinalysis when other causes are lacking. The majority of the infections seem to operate by reduction of the child's appetite, disturbing sleep, and bring about persistent chronic fatigue. Occasionally they do cause digestive disturbances of any severity such as parenteral diarrhea.

Congenital Anomalies.—Abnormalities of the heart with persistent cyanosis interfere with absorption and utilization of foods and proper growth. Similarly, developmental defects of other systems—gastro-intestinal, genito-urinary, central nervous system, interfere with proper nutrition. Mental retardation often results in refusal to eat all foods except milk and sometimes even milk is taken only in small quantities. Subdural hematoma in infancy may produce persistent vomiting, susceptibility to infection, and malnutrition. Infants with cleft palate and hare lip require considerable skill in their feeding and often must be gavaged to maintain adequate nutrition. Many of these infants fail to thrive because of the difficulties of feeding them.

Metabolic Disorders.—Diabetes mellitus is uncommon in infants and children and impairs nutrition only when the disease is not controlled. Blood dyscrasias, such as Cooley's anemia and leukemia, result in moderate to profound malnutrition. Malignant tumors of all types cause extreme malnutrition if the course of the illness is prolonged, as so often it is.

Premature Infant.—Premature infants frequently are unable to absorb fat properly and may fail to gain weight on an adequate caloric intake until part of the fat in the formula is removed and replaced by additional carbohydrate or protein.

Pathology.—The infant and child require extra food for growth beyond that needed for maintenance and repair of tissues. Even when there is a sufficient intake of food to supply maintenance requirements under-nutrition will develop because growth continues though at a slower rate when less food is available than when adequate food is available. As the food supply decreases, body stores are utilized to meet the needs of metabolism and growth as long as the stores are available. Carbohydrate stores are first used and then disappear in a few days. Fat stores are then drawn upon and the fat is transported to the liver and metabolized. As the quantity of fat metabolized increases, ketosis appears. Finally protein must be withdrawn from the muscles and organs to supply energy. The infant or child gradually becomes thinner and more emaciated as the subcutaneous fat disappears. Muscles and organs next suffer from lack of fuel and the rate of their metabolism begins to slow down. The basal metabolic rate decreases, circulation of the blood slows, and the ability of the gastro-intestinal tract to absorb food is reduced. This in turn increases the malnutrition, weakens the heart and blood vessels and further decreases the supply of blood to the tissues. Resistance to infection lessens, and the infant is subject to

tions which he is unable to overcome and which eventually may lead to death. Dehydration is frequent and may be greatly accentuated by the onset of diarrhea.

Diagnosis.—A careful detailed history of the diet must be obtained including method of preparation of formulas, the ingredients of the formula, the quantities of food taken, the frequency of feeding, and supplemental feedings. In this way the adequacy of intake of various food elements may be readily ascertained and errors in feeding corrected. A history of abnormal symptoms should be sought. If there has been vomiting, the type of vomiting, frequency and quantity of vomitus, should be determined as exactly as possible; the severity and duration of diarrhea; frequency and type of infections; appetite, rest, and activity should be investigated.

A careful physical examination should reveal gross cardiac abnormalities and diseases of the respiratory tract. Selective laboratory tests, as X-ray of the chest, complete blood count, repeated urinalysis, blood Wassermann, and blood urea nitrogen will assist in excluding the majority of physical abnormalities capable of producing malnutrition.

Dietary Treatment.—Infants who show poor weight gain often require only an increase in the daily caloric intake, with the formula calculated in simple fashion (See Artificial Feeding). If the larger volume of feeding is vomited, a larger caloric intake may be achieved without increase in volume of formula by reducing the amount of water in the formula. Premature infants who fail to gain on average high caloric formulas (120 cal/kg.) should have the formula changed to a preparation with a low fat and high carbohydrate and protein content (See Premature Infants). Breast fed infants who obtain insufficient breast milk should be offered a supplemental formula after each breast feeding.

Malnourished infants must receive a caloric intake that is calculated on the basis of expected normal weight for their age, rather than on actual weight. A high caloric intake (up to 200 cal/kg.) is therefore indicated but the infant may not be able to take the entire feeding at first. The protein need is larger than normal, to replace metabolized tissue and to build new tissue. Similarly a greater need for minerals is encountered and must be supplied. These needs cannot be met by unmodified human milk, but may be met if dried skim milk is added to the human milk. The fat content of the average formula may be too large for the malnourished infant and for this reason a low fat, high protein, high carbohydrate food is advisable. These requirements of malnourished infants are met by preparations designed for use in the feeding of premature infants (See Premature Infants). As the infant thrives and approaches normal weight for his age the formula may gradually be changed to whole milk formula. Acid whole cow's milk fortified with carbohydrate also makes a satisfactory feeding for malnourished infants, since it is a concentrated feeding of high caloric and mineral content and supplies acid which inhibits bacterial growth in the upper intestines and promotes rapid emptying of the stomach.

Vitamins are required for the malnourished infant as they are for the normal infant and should be supplied in optimum quantities for infants of their age. Small repeated whole blood transfusions are very helpful in stimulating the appetite of marantic infants. The transfusions correct anemia, replenish the depleted blood protein and supply carbonic anhydrase, which is deficient in the blood of infants.

Malnutrition in older children is usually of moderate degree and due to actual starvation or severe organic disease. The common type, related to infections of the respiratory and gastro-intestinal tracts, first requires treatment of the infectious process. An adequate diet in all respects for the age of the child should be calculated according to principles discussed elsewhere (See Nutritional Requirements of Infants and Children). Anorexia is readily overcome in these children by frequent administration of vitamin B complex and liver extract, twice weekly for three to four weeks, given by daily intramuscular injection. An increase in appetite is noted promptly and the recommended diet is then taken readily. The gain in weight is most gratifying on this regime.

MYOCARDIAL FAILURE

ROBERT McGRATH, M.D.

This term may be applied to either ventricle but usually both are involved.

At the present time there is general agreement that retention of sodium is an important factor in congestive failure. This has been stated over a period of many years by certain investigators but especially by H. A. Schroeder in 1941 and by F. R. Schemm in 1942. There are two other considerations, first, a neutral diet with slightly acid ash and the second a high fluid intake up to 4000 cc. in twenty-four hours. The reaction of the diet is not of great importance since ammonium chloride or similar acting drug can be given for acidifying effect. Good results are obtained from a fluid intake of 2500 to 3000 cc. The patient will usually take this much fluid if permitted to drink water as desired. Forcing fluids will be required to reach the total of 4000 cc. advised by Schemm.

In 1866 Karrell introduced the milk diet known by his name which has been used so commonly at the start of treatment for advanced congestive failure. This consisted of 200 cc. of skimmed milk fed four times a day without other fluids, and is an alkaline ash diet. The success was attributed to the low fluid intake but actually it lay in the low sodium content of 0.4 to 0.5 gm. According to the present viewpoint ammonium chloride should be administered and water allowed as desired. After two to four days, one of the diets discussed in the next paragraph should be started as judged by the progress the patient has made.

In general it is better to begin the treatment of a severe case of congestive failure with a low sodium neutral ash soft diet rather than the Karell diet. As improvement occurs a full diet of the same type may be substituted, the caloric content being reduced while at the

a) for the patient of average weight and 1000 calories for the light case. The sodium content of such diets should be between 0.5 and 0.6 gm. Eggs, meat, fish and fowl are acid ash foods. Apples, plums, and cranberries also produce an acid ash but other fruits as well as milk and vegetables are alkaline ash foods. The fluid intake should be ordered independently of the diet because it is properly a part of the regimen rather than the diet. In many ambulatory cases of mild congestive failure, the following directions, which are concerned only with sodium content, are sufficient:

Milk should be limited to 200 cc. per day.

Directions for all Low Sodium Diets (listed below).

In overweight cases and even in those of normal weight the problem of buying or making low-salt bread can best be solved by omitting bread from the diet in patients following the above directions.

The sodium content of the average diet without salt restriction is 5 to 6.0 gm. per day. When salt is not added in preparing food at the table, these figures are reduced to 1.2 to 1.5 gm. per day.

There are certain disadvantages to low sodium diets. The first is the common complaint that the food is tasteless but this dislike can be largely overcome if the diet is continued for some time. The second is the difficulty experienced by patients who must eat in restaurants. The third is a rather rare complication in which sodium depletion symptoms may develop when a mercurial diuretic is given in conjunction with a low sodium regimen.

An additional factor of great importance in planning a low sodium diet is the sodium content of the water used by the patient. The following quotation and the accompanying table are from a publication of the Research Laboratory of Mead Johnson and Co. entitled "Sodium and Potassium Analyses of American Foodstuffs, Determinations by Flame Photometer, Fourth List, May 1947, with Additions and Corrections":

Assuming an average daily consumption of 2 liters of water in food and drink, it follows that if the water contains as much as 25 mg. of sodium per 100 cc., the patient will receive 500 mg. of sodium from the water alone, and a diet limited to this amount becomes impossible. It would be a safe rule to use only distilled or deionized water for sodium-restricted patients wherever the municipal supply contains more than 10 mg. of sodium per 100 cc.

Fortunately, the municipal water supplies of most cities are so low in sodium that they are entirely suitable for use in low-sodium diets. There are, however, some outstanding exceptions. In some communities the water is noticeably "hard", *i. e.*, it contains much calcium or magnesium. Hardness or softness has no bearing on the sodium content of water, except that when hard water is softened by a base-exchange apparatus the calcium and magnesium are replaced by sodium in the ratio of 2 atoms of sodium for each atom of calcium or magnesium. Therefore water which has been softened is always suspect as regards its suitability for low-sodium diets and for preparation of Lonalac.

The following table gives the sodium (and potassium) content of

the waters of representative cities. Included are the principal cities of the United States, the capitals of most states and many places as important as medical centers. The samples were taken in the winter and spring of 1947, and the analyses were made with the flame photometer. Seasonal variations are known to occur, especially in river waters, but river waters rarely contain much sodium.

TABLE 32. Sodium and Potassium Content of the Waters of Representative Cities of the United States. (Mead Johnson and Co.—1947).

Place	Na mg. per 100 cc.	K mg. per 100 cc.	Place	Na mg. per 100 cc.	K mg. per 100 cc.
Aberdeen, S. D.	20.0	2.0	Little Rock, Ark.	1.0	1.0
Albany, N. Y.	.2	.2	Los Angeles, Cal.:		
Annapolis, Md.	.2	.2	Aqueduct source	6.0	1.0
Ann Arbor, Mich.	2.0	.5	Metropolitan source	17.0	1.0
Atlanta, Ga.	.2	.2	River source	5.0	1.0
Augusta, Me.	.2	.2	Louisville, Ky.	2.0	1.0
Baltimore, Md.	.3	.2	Madison, Wis.	.4	1.0
Biloxi, Miss.	23.0	.6	Marion, Ohio	17.0	1.0
Birmingham, Ala.	2.0	.3	Memphis, Tenn.	2.0	1.0
Bismarck, N. D.	6.0	.6	Miami, Fla.	2.0	1.0
Boise, Ida.	2.0	.3	Milwaukee, Wis.	.3	1.0
Boston, Mass.	.3	.2	Minneapolis, Minn.	.5	1.0
Buffalo, N. Y.	.7	.3	Minot, N. D.	25.0	1.0
Carson City, Nev.	.4	.3	Montgomery, Ala.	.8	1.0
Charleston, S. C.	1.0	.3	Montpelier, Vt.	.1	1.0
Charlottesville, Va.	.2	.1	Nashville, Tenn.	.3	2.0
Cheyenne, Wyo.	.3	.2	Newark, N. J.	.2	1.0
Chicago, Ill.	.3	.1	New Haven, Conn.	.3	1.0
Cincinnati, Ohio	.7	.3	New York, N. Y.	.3	2.0
Cleveland, Ohio	1.0	.3	Oakland, Cal.	.3	1.0
Columbia, S. C.	.4	.2	Oklahoma City, Okla.	10.0	8.0
Columbus, Ohio	5.0	.6	Olympia, Wash.	.5	3.0
Concord, N. H.	.2	.1	Omaha, Neb.	8.0	1.0
Dallas, Tex.	3.0	.5	Philadelphia, Pa.	2.0	4.0
Denver, Col.	3.0	.2	Phoenix, Ariz.	11.0	7.0
Des Moines, Iowa	1.0	.4	Pierre, S. D.	9.0	5.0
Detroit, Mich.	.3	.1	Pittsburgh, Pa.	6.0	5.0
Dover, Del.	2.0	.5	Portland, Ore.	.1	1.0
Durham, N. C.	.4	.2	Providence, R. I.	.2	1.0
El Paso, Tex.	7.0	.6	Raleigh, N. C.	.4	1.0
Evansville, Ind.	2.0	.5	Richmond, Va.	.7	2.0
Frankford, Ky.	.3	.1	Rochester, Minn.	.7	2.0
Galesburg, Ill.	30.0	2.0	Rochester, N. Y.	.3	2.0
Galveston, Tex.	34.0	.7	Sacramento, Cal.	.3	2.0
Harrisburg, Pa.	.2	.1	St. Louis, Mo.	5.0	5.0
Hartford, Conn.	.2	.1	St. Paul, Minn.	.5	3.0
Helena, Mont.	.3	.2	Salem, Ore.	.2	1.0
Houston, Tex.	16.0	.6	Salt Lake City, Utah	.8	2.0
Indianapolis, Ind.	1.0	.3	San Diego, Cal.	5.0	5.0
Iowa City, Iowa	.5	.3	San Francisco, Cal.	1.0	3.0
Jackson, Miss.	.4	.2	Seattle, Wash.	.2	1.0
Jefferson City, Mo.	3.0	.4	Springfield, Ill.	.8	3.0
Jersey City, N. J.	.3	.2	Syracuse, N. Y.	.2	1.0
Kansas City, Mo.	10.0	3.0	Tallahassee, Fla.	.3	1.0
Lansing, Mich.	1.0	.5	Trenton, N. J.	.1	1.0
Lincoln, Neb.	3.0	.7	Washington, D. C.	.3	3.0
			Wichita, Kan.	5.0	5.0

Additional data on public water supplies can be obtained from the various state and municipal laboratories, and from a U. S. Government bulletin compiled some years ago, "The Industrial Utility of Public Water Supplies in the United States, 1932" (Geological Survey Water-Supply Paper 658), Washington, Superintendent of Documents, 25 cents."

DIRECTIONS FOR ALL LOW SODIUM DIETS

No salt, soda, or baking powder should be used in preparing food.

No salt should be added after the food is served. (No salt substitute should be used which contains sodium.)

Water must have a low sodium content.

Sodium bicarbonate or medicines containing it should not be taken.

Omit prepared foods containing salt such as salad dressing, salty appetizers, salted nuts, potato chips, olives, pickles, relishes, bouillon cubes, and smoked or salted meats and fish.

Omit canned foods unless canned without salt.

Salad dressings must be made without salt.

Unsalted cottage cheese is the only satisfactory cheese.

Bread must be made without salt.

Butter must be salt-free (sweet butter). Butter may be used free of salt.

The limits of a neutral diet range from a slightly acid ash through neutral to a slightly alkaline ash. The following three diets are within this range, the actual ash depending upon certain choices to be made by the patient. The general opinion is that if the diet is neutral it is not necessary to have an invariably slightly acid ash as recommended by Schemm because ammonium chloride or other similar acidifying drug is usually given in the treatment of congestive failure and will readily alter a neutral or a slightly alkaline ash. With few exceptions the figures for the sodium content of the foods in these diets have been taken from the previously mentioned publication of the Research Laboratory of Mead Johnson and Co.

LOW SODIUM NEUTRAL ASH DIET

Approximately: C 207 P 50 F 50 Calories 1500; Sodium 0.5 gm.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Weight in gm.</i>	<i>Amount in common measure.</i>	<i>Sample menu.</i>
<i>Breakfast:</i>			
Fruit juice	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup choose from list	Orange juice
Cereal with	30 (dry wt.)	$\frac{3}{4}$ cup, cooked choose from list	
Milk, whole	50 ($\frac{1}{2}$ cup)		Farina with milk
Unsalted toast, white	30		Unsalted white toast
Sweet butter	5		Sweet butter
Beverage, if desired		1 cup. Choose from list	Beverage
Light cream	30	2 tablespoons	Light cream
Sugar	10	2 teaspoons	Sugar

Dinner

Meat	50	1 serving. Choose from list	Sliced chicken
Potato or Potato substitute	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Rice
Vegetable	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Peas
Unsalted bread, white	30	1 slice	Unsalted white bread
Sweet butter	10	2 teaspoons	Sweet butter
Dessert	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Orange ice
Milk, whole	180	1 glass	Milk
Beverage, if desired		1 cup. Choose from list	Beverage
Sugar	5	1 teaspoon	Sugar

Lunch or Supper:

Egg	48	1	Egg omelet
Vegetable	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Asparagus tips
Unsalted bread, white	30	1 slice	Unsalted white bread
Sweet butter	10	2 teaspoons	Sweet butter
Fruit	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Applesauce
Milk, whole	180	1 glass	Milk
Beverage, if desired		1 cup. Choose from list	Beverage
Sugar	5	1 teaspoon	Sugar

Refer to—Directions For All Low Sodium Diets—previously listed.

Fruits and Fruit Juices—Cooked fruits only. Fruits must be cooked or canned without sugar. Choose from the following list in the amount given:

- Applesauce or apple juice— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- Orange, grapefruit or pineapple juice— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- Grapejuice or cranberry juice— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- Stewed peaches—1 medium size.
- Stewed pears—1 medium size.
- Prune juice— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- Stewed prunes—2 or 3.

Cereals—Must be prepared without salt. Use farina, rice, cream of wheat or oatmeal.

Beverages—Tea and coffee may be used if desired and not contraindicated. Milk from the allowance for Dinner and Supper may be added to the beverage if desired.

Meat—Beef, veal, lamb, chicken.

Potato substitutes—Macaroni, spaghetti, rice, home made noodles.

Vegetables—May be fresh, frozen, or canned without salt and must be well cooked.

Choose from the following list in the amount given:

- Asparagus tips—5 or 6.
- Peas— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- Potato (sweet or white)—one serving per day,—baked, boiled, or mashed.
- Squash— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- Stewed tomato— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.
- String beans— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Desserts—Plain fruit gelatine, fruit ices, or custard.

Eggs—May be soft cooked, poached, scrambled or as an omelet if salt is not used in the cooking.

1000 CALORIE LOW SODIUM NEUTRAL ASH DIET

Approximately: C 120 P 65 F 30 Sodium 0.5 gm.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Weight in gm.</i>	<i>Amount in common measure.</i>	<i>Sample menu.</i>
<i>Breakfast:</i>			
Fruit or juice	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Orange juice
Unsalted toast	30	1 slice	Unsalted toast
Sweet butter	3	$\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon	Sweet butter
Egg	48	1	Egg
Beverage, if desired		1 cup. Choose from list	Beverage with
Skimmed milk	30	2 tablespoons	Skimmed milk

meat	75	1 serving. Choose from list	Roast beef
vegetables, two	100 each	1 serving of each. Choose from list	String beans
unsalted bread	30	1 slice	Summer squash
unsalted butter	5	1 teaspoon	Unsalted bread
fruit	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Sweet butter
sterilized milk	180	1 glass	Melon
beverage, if desired		1 cup	Skimmed milk
			Beverage
<i>For Supper:</i>			
meat	75	1 serving. Choose from list	Sliced chicken
vegetables, two	100, each	1 serving of each. Choose from list	Peas, sliced tomatoes
unsalted bread	30	1 slice	Unsalted bread
unsalted butter	5	1 teaspoon	Sweet butter
fruit	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Blueberries
sterilized milk	180	1 glass	Skimmed milk
beverage, if desired		1 cup. Choose from list	Beverage

Refer to—Directions For All Low Sodium Diets—previously listed.

Bread—White, whole wheat or rye bread made without salt. A Matzoth may be substituted for a slice of bread.

Fruits and Fruit Juices—Fresh, canned without sugar, or cooked without sugar. Choose from the following list in the amount given:

Apple—1 small or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of unsweetened juice.

Apricot—1.

Banana— $\frac{1}{2}$ medium size.

Grapefruit— $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ cup of juice.

Grapes—10 to 12.

Grapejuice— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Melon—4 heaping tablespoons of watermelon or $\frac{1}{8}$ of a medium size cantaloupe.

Peach—1 medium size.

Pear—1 small.

Pineapple—1 slice or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice.

Orange—1 small or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice.

Raspberries, strawberries, blueberries, blackberries— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Beverages—Tea and coffee may be used if desired and not contraindicated. Skimmed milk from the allowance for Dinner and Supper may be added to the beverage desired.

Meat—Beef, veal, lamb, chicken.

Vegetables—Cooked or uncooked. May be fresh, frozen, or canned without salt. Choose from the following list in the amount given.

Asparagus—5 or 6 stalks.

Celery—2 stalks.

Eggplant— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Endive—10 leaves.

Chicory—10 leaves.

Lettuce— $\frac{1}{4}$ head. Peas— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup. Squash— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup. String beans— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Tomatoes—1 fresh or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice or stewed tomato.

Eggs—May be soft cooked, poached, scrambled or as an omelet if salt is not used in the cooking.

Saccharin—May be used as a sweetener.

100 CALORIE LOW SODIUM NEUTRAL ASH DIET (Table 29 p. 285)

Approximately: C 209 P 78 Sodium 0.5 gm

Food items.	Weight in gm.	Amount in common measure.	Sample menu.
<i>Breakfast:</i>			
Fruit or juice	100	1 serving. Choose from list	Orange juice
Cereal with	30(dry wt.)	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup as served. Choose from list.	Oatmeal with
Milk, whole	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ cup	Milk

Breakfast (Continued)

Egg	48	1	Egg
Unsalted toast	30	1 slice	Unsalted toast
Sweet butter	5	1 teaspoon	Sweet butter
Beverage, if desired		1 cup. Choose from list	Beverage
Light cream	30	2 tablespoons	Light cream
Sugar	15	3 teaspoons	Sugar

Dinner:

Meat	100	1 large serving. Choose from list.	Roast beef
Potato or potato substitute	100	1 serving. Choose from list.	Baked potato
Vegetables, two	100, each	1 serving of each. Choose from list.	String beans Summer squash
Unsalted bread	30	1 slice	Unsalted bread
Sweet butter	10	2 teaspoons	Sweet butter
Dessert	100	1 serving. Choose from list.	Lemon gelatin
Milk, whole	180	1 glass	Milk
Beverage, if desired		1 cup	Beverage
Sugar	5	1 teaspoon	Sugar

Lunch or Supper:

Meat	75	1 serving. Choose from list	Sliced chicken
Rice or other cereal	30(dry wt.)	$\frac{3}{4}$ cup as served. Choose from list.	Steamed rice
Vegetable	100	1 serving. Choose from list.	Asparagus
Unsalted bread	30	1 slice	Unsalted bread
Sweet butter	10	2 teaspoons	Sweet butter
Fruit	100	1 serving. Choose from list.	Peach
Milk, whole	180	1 glass	Milk, whole
Beverage, if desired		1 cup	Beverage
Sugar	5	1 teaspoon	Sugar

Refer to—Directions For All Low Sodium Diets—previously listed.

Bread—White, whole wheat or rye bread made without salt. A matzoth may substituted for a slice of bread.

Fruits and Fruit Juices—May be fresh, cooked or canned. Choose from following list in the amount given:

Apple—1 medium size or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of apple sauce or juice.

Apricots—2.

Banana— $\frac{1}{2}$ medium size.

Cherries— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Cranberries— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup or $\frac{1}{3}$ cup of juice.

Grapefruit— $\frac{1}{2}$ medium size or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice.

Grapes—10 to 12.

Grapejuice— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Melon—4 heaping tablespoons of watermelon or $\frac{1}{8}$ of a medium size cantaloupe.

Orange—1 small or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice.

Peach—1 medium size.

Pear—1 medium size.

Pineapple—1 slice or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice.

Prunes—3 or 4 or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice.

Plums—3 or 4.

Raspberries—strawberries, blueberries, blackberries— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

Cereals—Must be prepared without salt. Use farina, rice, cream of wheat, oatmeal, hominy, puffed rice, puffed wheat.

Beverages—Tea and coffee may be used if desired and not contraindicated. Milk from the allowance for Dinner and Supper may be added to the beverage if desired.

Meat—Beef, veal, lamb, chicken. Two eggs or a serving of unsalted cottage cheese may be substituted for meat once a day.

Potato substitutes—Macaroni, spaghetti, rice, corn, home-made noodles.

Vegetables—Cooked or uncooked. May be fresh, frozen, or canned without salt. Choose from the following list in the amount given.

paragus—5 or 6 stalks.

asparagus—2 stalks.

plant— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

ave—10 leaves.

berry—10 leaves.

tuce— $\frac{1}{4}$ head.

shrooms—4.

as— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

tato (Sweet or white)—1 serving per day—baked, boiled, or mashed.

quash— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

ing beans— $\frac{1}{2}$ cup.

matoes—1 fresh or $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of juice or stewed tomato.

—May be soft cooked, poached, scrambled or as an omelet if salt is not used cooking.

erts—Plain fruit gelatine; tapioca and cornstarch puddings (use milk allowance day in their preparation); fruit as listed.

OBESITY.

JAMES J. SHORT, M.D.

Discussion.—Fewer difficulties in the management of obesity would be encountered if one general principle would be kept in mind. The reduction of weight depends at all times on the maintenance of a caloric deficit, *i. e.*, a difference between calories expended for heat and energy and the caloric value of food ingested. This principle applies regardless of the type of obesity from which an individual suffers. And there is no other principle by which excess fat can be

Despite the obviousness of this fact, one frequently sees patients being treated with every conceivable gland preparation and with no clear conception of just what is to be accomplished. There is, however, unlimited hope and faith, in the general belief that the pathology must be "glandular." The idea seems to be prevalent that some glandular product might be hit upon to correct some hypothetical deficiency, the fat might suddenly "fold its tents like the Arabs and as silently steal away." Needless to say, this kind of therapy is almost invariably disappointing. Failure to effect a satisfactory weight reduction often serves further to confirm many physicians in their belief that a given case of obesity is "glandular" and is therefore practically impossible to correct at the present stage of endocrine therapy. The patient is often permitted to feel that his condition is hopelessly incurable, which occasionally leads to warranted pessimism and further recklessness in eating habits.

Although the endocrines undoubtedly do influence the state of nutrition, they should nevertheless be regarded as *predisposing* but not *determining* factors in the production of obesity. Obesity is caused by an excessive consumption of food beyond that essential for the production of adequate heat and energy. In this sense all obesity is "exogenous" in origin, for without the ingestion of an excess of food, no excess fat can be deposited, let the endocrine disturbances be what they may. There is, therefore, no type of obesity which is not amenable to dietary correction, frequent assertions to the contrary notwithstanding. Dietary adjustment to produce a caloric deficit is the *sine qua non* of successful treatment, even though endocrine therapy often may have a valid place in the program.

With these principles clearly in mind, and freed from the inhibiting influence of many current false tenets concerning the problem of weight reduction, the physician may undertake the management of obesity with every expectation of success. A procedure which the writer has found successful over a period of years will be briefly presented.

Procedure.—A general medical history covering present complaints, hereditary disease, personal habits, past history, operations, etc., is carefully taken. Further information is then elicited regarding the obesity itself, especially as to age of onset, its probable cause, the usual diet, related symptoms and endocrine status. This is followed by a general physical examination with special attention to the heart and circulation, hair distribution, fat deposits, habitus and weight, both actual and ideal. Ideal weight is calculated from an improved life insurance table as shown in Table 33.

It will be noticed that the maximum age shown is thirty; there is no sound physiologic reason for an individual to gain steadily during the remainder of his life. Ideal weight at age thirty should be considered ideal for life. Three figures are given for each age and sex group, each relating to the bony framework, *e. g.*, medium (bold-face type), light and heavy. The class into which an individual falls is determined by inspection of wrists, ankles, breadth of shoulders and hips. Occasionally two people may disagree on this question, though a satisfactory estimate can usually be made. Interpolation is occasionally desirable. The table here given has been found by the writer and his co-workers to be the most satisfactory in their experience, and to agree closely with impressions of what constitutes ideal weight at the close of the reduction period.

Following the physical examination (which includes fluoroscopic examination of the chest) certain laboratory tests are made routinely and others as indicated. Routine tests include urinalysis, serologic tests for syphilis, blood urea nitrogen, cholesterol, sedimentation rate, red cell count and hemoglobin; basal metabolism and glucose tolerance tests; if indicated, an electrocardiogram.

Metabolism.—The basal metabolism and glucose tolerance tests have proved especially helpful. Unduly low basal metabolic rates, so often assumed to be the underlying factor in the etiology of obesity, are occasionally found, but are not the rule. Indeed, the general trend is toward higher basal rates with increasing degrees of obesity, though the great majority fall within normal limits. Other helpful information which may be obtained from a carefully performed metabolism test (where the various steps are charted) is the basal twenty-four-hour caloric expenditure and the total heat production expressed as percentage of normal. If the patient's weight has been stationary, it may be assumed that the daily basal caloric expenditure as estimated plus 20 to 30 per cent is equivalent to the maintenance diet. This figure is reached by multiplying the total basal calories per hour by 24 and adding at least 20 to 30 per cent for usual activity. Chart 5 gives the record of one extremely obese

TABLE 33.—Tables for Determining Ideal Weight.
(Without shoes)

MEN

In.	15 yr.	20 yr.	25 yr.	30 yr.
0	98 109 123	107 119 134	112 124 140	115 128 144
1	101 112 126	110 122 137	114 126 142	117 130 146
2	103 115 129	112 125 141	116 129 145	120 133 150
3	106 118 133	115 128 144	120 133 150	122 136 153
4	110 122 137	119 132 149	123 137 154	126 140 158
5	113 126 142	122 136 153	127 141 159	130 144 162
6	117 130 146	126 140 158	130 145 163	133 148 167
7	121 134 151	130 144 162	134 149 168	137 152 171
8	124 138 155	133 148 167	138 153 172	140 156 176
9	128 142 160	137 152 171	141 157 177	145 161 181
10	132 147 165	140 156 176	146 162 182	150 166 187
11	137 152 171	145 161 181	150 167 188	155 172 194
0	141 157 177	149 166 187	156 173 195	160 178 200
1	146 162 182	154 171 192	161 179 201	166 184 207
2	150 167 188	158 176 198	166 184 207	171 190 214
3	155 172 194	163 181 204	170 189 213	176 196 221
4	159 177 199	168 186 209	175 194 218	181 201 226

WOMEN

Ft.	In.	15 yr.	20 yr.	25 yr.	30 yr.
4	8	93 104 117	98 109 113	101 112 126	104 115 129
4	9	95 105 118	100 111 125	103 114 128	105 117 132
4	10	95 106 119	102 113 127	104 116 131	107 119 134
4	11	97 108 122	103 115 129	106 118 133	109 121 136
5	0	100 111 125	106 118 133	108 120 135	111 123 138
5	1	103 114 128	109 121 136	111 123 138	114 126 142
5	2	105 117 132	112 124 140	114 127 143	116 129 145
5	3	108 120 135	114 127 143	117 130 146	120 133 150
5	4	112 124 140	117 130 146	120 133 150	122 136 153
5	5	115 128 144	121 134 151	123 137 154	126 140 158
5	6	119 132 149	124 138 155	127 141 159	130 144 162
5	7	122 136 153	128 142 160	130 145 163	134 148 167
5	8	126 140 158	131 145 163	134 149 168	137 152 171
5	9	130 144 162	134 149 168	138 153 172	140 155 174
5	10	134 149 168	139 154 173	140 156 176	143 159 179
5	11	139 154 173	143 159 180	144 160 180	148 163 184

THREE WEIGHTS GIVEN:

. Middle figures, dark, for medium build (medium bone weight for height). Average weight.
 . Upper figures for slender build (light bone weight for height). 10 per cent reduction from average weight.
 . Lower figures for large frame (heavy bone weight for height). 12½ per cent added to average weight.

individual weighing 487 pounds who required over 4000 cal. per day to maintain weight, and who had a total heat production of 113 per cent above normal. Using such information as a guide it will be found that obese individuals are relatively heavy eaters, their protestations to the contrary notwithstanding.

CHART 5.—Report on Basal Metabolism and Total Heat Production

Name.....*E. B.*..... Date..... *1/24/39*.....
 Sex...*F.*... Age...*45*... Height...*63½"*... Wght...*487* (Ideal...*147*)...
 Body Surface...*2.84* sq. m. (Ideal...*1.70*)... T...*98.0*... P...*80*... R...*110*...
 Night's Rest...*Good*... Attitude...*Coöperative*... O₂ consumption... *447*
 per min...*26.44*... liters per hour. Total calories per hour...*126.90* (R...
0.82. Heat value of O₂ -4.8 cal. per liter) (Average normal at
 weight...*59.50*)... Calories per sq.m. per hour...*44.68*... (Average normal
35.0)

RESULT { Basal Metabolic Rate is *27%*...*above*... the average normal
 { Total Heat Production...*113%*...*above*... the average normal

Method—*Benedict-Roth*

Standard—*DuBois, Boothby-Sandiford*

Comment: Test: *Satisfactory*

The "total heat production" referred to is that produced under *basal* conditions. Its significance in connection with the "basal metabolism" will be readily understood if it is remembered that the "basal" metabolism refers to the heat production per *unit* (square meter) of surface area, while total heat production refers to the body as a whole. Both figures are expressed as percentages above or below an average "normal" for a person of the same sex and age. In obtaining the percentage figure for total heat production, the figure for the total calories per hour, as determined by the test,

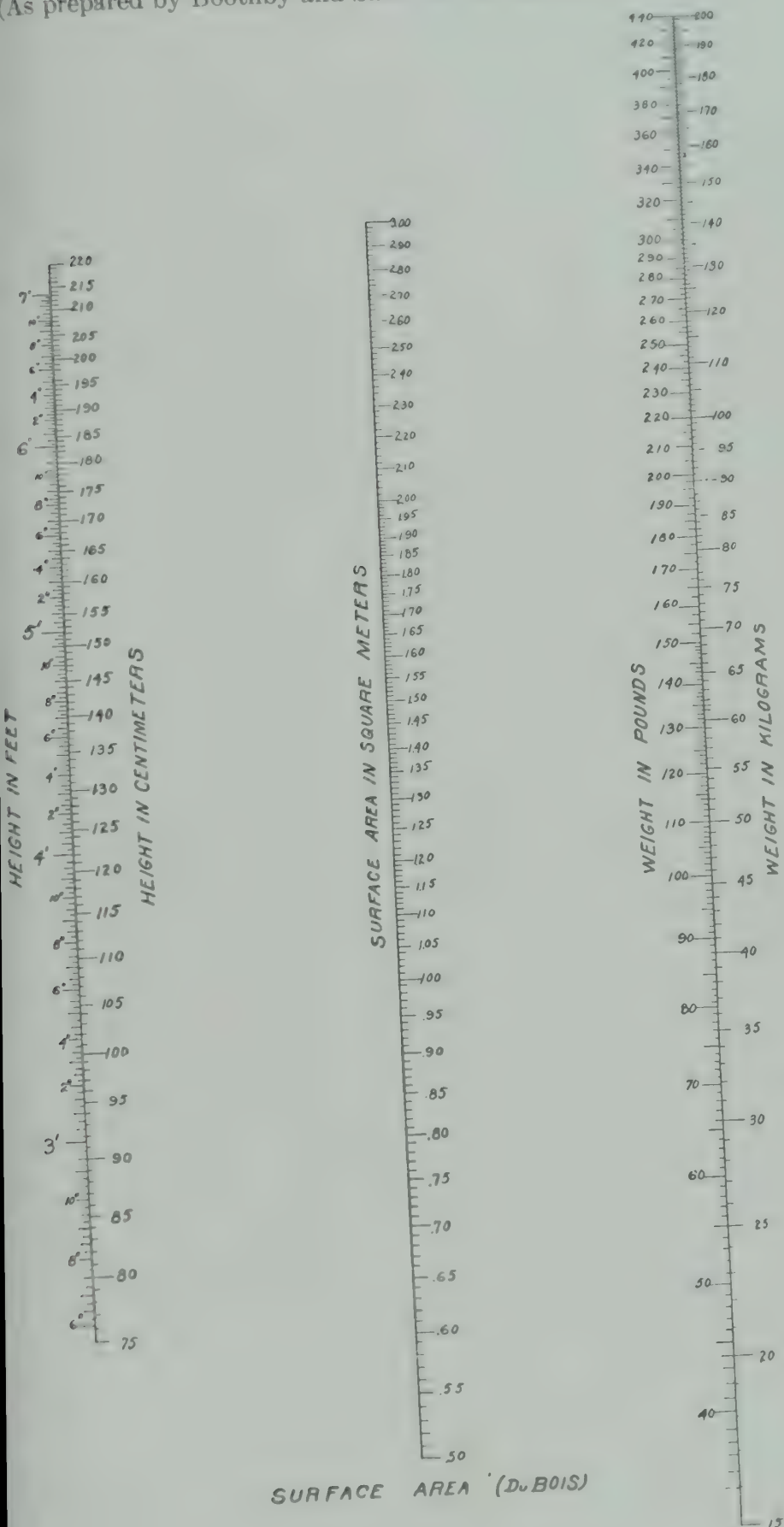
TABLE 34.—The DuBois Normal Standards as Modified by Boothby and Sandiford.

(From the Mayo Clinic) Prelim. Report: *Am. Jour. Physiol.*, 90, 291, 1929.

(Calories per square meter per hour.)					
Age.	Males.	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.
5	(53.0)	(51.6)	20-24	41.0	36.9
6	52.7	50.7	25-29	40.3	36.6
7	52.0	49.3			
8	51.2	48.1	30-34	39.8	36.2
9	50.4	46.9	35-39	39.2	35.8
10	49.5	45.8	40-44	38.3	35.3
11	48.6	44.6	45-49	37.8	35.0
12	47.8	43.4			
13	47.1	42.0	50-54	37.2	34.5
14	46.2	41.0	55-59	36.6	34.1
15	45.3	39.6	60-64	36.0	33.8
16	44.7	38.5	65-69	35.3	33.4
17	43.7	37.4			
18	42.9	37.3	70-74	(34.8)	(32.8)
19	42.1	37.2	75-79	(34.2)	(32.3)

CHART 6.—DuBois Body Surface Chart.

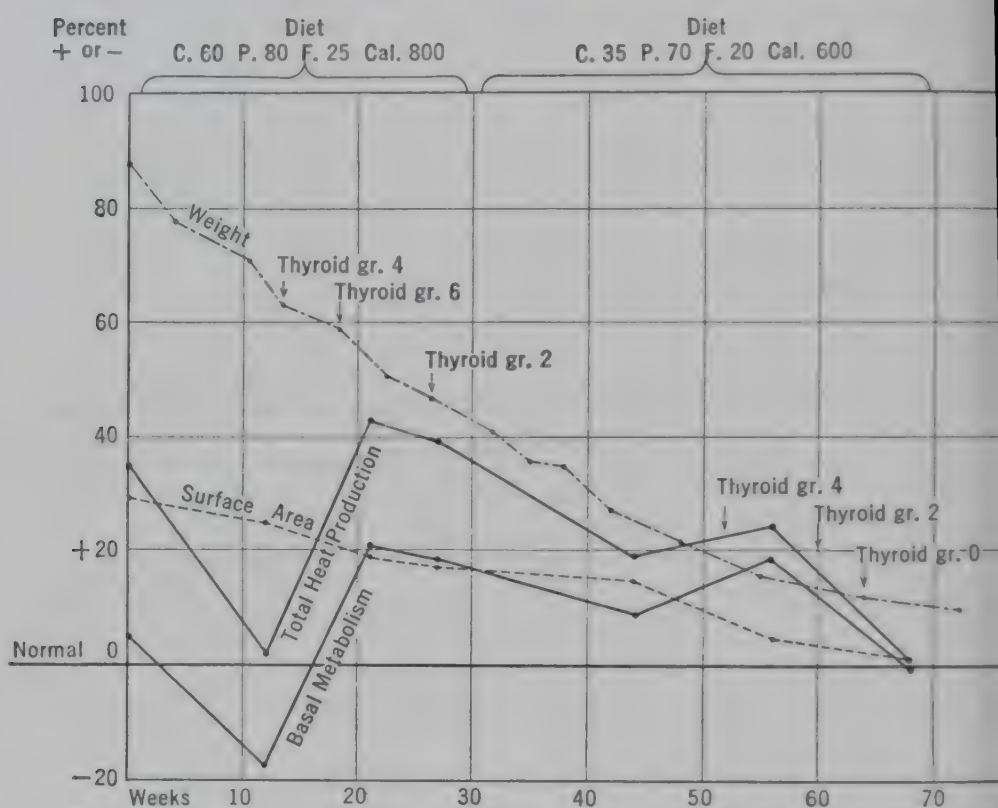
(As prepared by Boothby and Sandiford of the Mayo Clinic)



divided by the normal number for the individual, *i. e.*, the theoretically correct figure at ideal weight. The latter figure may be obtained by the use of Chart 6 and Table 34. Surface area at ideal weight (in square meters) is multiplied by the correct number of calories per hour as found in Table 34.

The total heat production in obesity is almost invariably increased above normal. As a gauge to metabolic activity it is a far better guide than the "basal" metabolic rate as usually expressed. Heat-producing tissues (chiefly the muscles) must undergo more than double their usual rate of energy exchange to produce a rate of +113 per cent, as noted in Chart 5. Further metabolic stimulation, as

CHART 7.—Effect of Low-caloric Diets and Thyroid Therapy on Weight, Surface Area, Basal Metabolism and Total Heat Production.



often employed by the use of thyroid extract, drugs, or other endocrine products might, and occasionally does, produce untoward even disastrous consequences. The writer rarely employs metabolic stimulants at the beginning of treatment, but reserves their use for a period subsequent to the employment of a reducing diet, when the usual metabolic effect of a low-caloric diet has been obtained. A characteristic response to a low-caloric diet is presented in Chart 7. It will be noted that shortly after the institution of a low-caloric diet the metabolic rate (expressed as basal metabolism and total heat production) dropped sharply to lower levels. Thyroid extract was then given but the optimum dose was exceeded. In the writer's experience the patient can usually tolerate sufficient metabolic stimulation to keep the "basal" metabolism at the normal level.

than this will often elicit toxic symptoms. Unless such correction of the low metabolic rates obtained by reducing diets is made, patients frequently complain of lassitude and weakness, and weight loss becomes unsatisfactory. Thyroid extract is generally employed for this purpose and is very satisfactory. The dosage should be suited to the individual case and should be controlled by clinical observation and a sufficient number of metabolic rate determinations to gauge the degree of response. Three to 4 grains daily of desiccated thyroid extract is rarely exceeded in the writer's experience.

Diabetes.—When the glucose tolerance test indicates diabetes, this condition can usually be disregarded while the obesity is under treatment. In other words, complete correction of the obesity is sufficient for the diabetes. Even in long-standing cases of diabetes, insulin is seldom necessary during the reduction period. A number of cases which by all acceptable criteria, such as high blood sugars and marked glycosuria, could be considered diabetic, have been observed to regain a strictly normal glucose tolerance after thorough weight reduction. Milder degrees of glucose tolerance impairment frequently seen are almost invariably corrected.

The Psychic Factor.—One aspect of obesity management which deserves special emphasis is the psychic factor. Without the patient's coöperation treatment is doomed to failure. Obese individuals have often developed food habits which when left to themselves they have not the will power to break. The physician must supply the will power, instill the necessary confidence, encourage the patient, and act as guide and "father confessor." A goal is an excellent device for this purpose. The writer has established as a goal a weight loss of 10 pounds per month which is reasonable and about the general average. Thus, to point out a definite period, say of ten months for the removal of 100 pounds, will frequently develop greater faithfulness in adhering to the program. Many patients take great delight in exceeding predictions, though this must sometimes be discouraged if essential foods are being omitted from the diet. One patient, under the writer's care, by a very strict adherence to her diet reduced her weight by 283 pounds in thirteen months, instead of in twenty months as originally predicted; even her health improved steadily.

Medical Supervision.—To accomplish large weight losses it is essential that the patient report to the physician at regular intervals. The optimal frequency, in the writer's experience, has been at weekly intervals. A request for a list of all foods consumed during this period is a further check on dietary indiscretions or errors of judgment.

Diets.—Diets should be individualized. Although one general diet may suit well the needs of a majority of patients, greater coöperation may be obtained if idiosyncrasies of taste and constitution are consulted. The psychic effect of a special, individualized diet should not be overlooked. However, general principles to be followed are much the same for all patients.

Diets of from 600 to 1000 calories have been found most successful for the average city dweller, in the writer's experience. Measured diets are most practical for ambulatory patients. For institutionalized cases, weighed diets are to be preferred. Diets of high caloric value should be prescribed for the grosser cases of obesity, with modification downward as progress is made.

In calculating a diet for any given case, it is important that protein and carbohydrate be adequate and that fat be kept low. An altogether fat-free diet is apt to be somewhat unpalatable as well as difficult to obtain. Minerals and vitamins should be abundant. Since these are often inadequate in restricted diets it is well to add both. A mixture of the essential mineral elements with sodium chloride is on the market for table use.* Vitamin concentrates in capsule form are readily available.

In the calculation of protein and carbohydrate values, the ideal weight should be utilized. One gram of protein per kilogram (2.2 pounds) of ideal weight is adequate. The carbohydrate content should not be less than 0.6 gram per kilogram and can usually be equal to the protein. Carbohydrates have a protein-sparing action upon body tissue. Fats need not be added as such.

Rapidly accumulating data on vitamin requirements and distribution indicate that deficiencies frequently exist in average diets. Especially is there evidence for a deficiency of vitamin B₁ or thiamine, largely as a result of the prevailing tendency toward the use of highly milled flours in baking. Other fractions of the vitamin complex, such as riboflavin and niacin, are also frequently deficient. Since reducing diets contain only from one-half to one-third the caloric value of a maintenance diet, still greater deficiencies may be expected. The diets offered in this section have been estimated to contain adequate amounts of the vitamins except thiamine. The writer has long made it a practice to add to the daily diets of private patients commercial concentrates of the vitamin B complex. The adult requirement of B₁ which is approximately 500 I.U. or 1.5 mg., should be assured. The great disadvantage is that the cost of such products is relatively high and may entail a hardship to those in the lower income brackets, such as is the case with clinic patients. A lower-priced product is obtainable in the form of brewer's yeast.

As wide a latitude in choice of foods as is feasible is greatly appreciated by most patients. Typical diets which have been found useful are as follows:

Low-caloric Diet.

Approximately 600 Calories.

Breakfast:

Fresh Fruit in Season: *One serving of:* apple, blackberries, grapefruit, melon, orange, peach, pineapple, raspberries, strawberries

Milk: One-quarter cup
with

Beverage: Coffee, tea, Postum

* Titro salt, Nordmark Company, New York.

and Supper:

Meat or Fish: One-quarter pound lean meat or fresh fish, boiled, broiled, baked; *NO* gravy

Eggs: Two, boiled or poached

Cheese: One-quarter pound cottage or pot

Vegetables: *As desired:* asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chicory, cucumbers, escarole, eggplant, lettuce, radishes, spinach, squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnips, beets, Brussels sprouts, onions, canned peas

Milk: One cup of skim milk or buttermilk

Beverage: Coffee, tea, *Postum*, *Sanka*

Salt in moderation. Vinegar or lemon may be used with salads

Sample Menu.

Breakfast:

Half grapefruit

Coffee with one-quarter cup milk

Lunch:

Large portion of spinach with

Two poached eggs

Lettuce and tomato salad

One cup buttermilk

Dinner:

One slice lean roast beef

Large portion of string beans

Large portion of celery hearts and radishes

Coffee

Supper:

One cup skim milk or buttermilk

Low-caloric Diet.

Approximately 800 Calories.

Breakfast:

Fresh Fruit in Season: *One serving of:* apple, blackberries, grapefruit, melon, orange, peach, pineapple, raspberries, strawberries

Milk: One-quarter cup

with

Beverage: Coffee, tea, *Postum*, *Sanka*

Lunch and Supper:

Meat or Fish: One-quarter pound lean meat or fresh fish, boiled, broiled, baked; *NO* gravy

or

Eggs: Two, boiled or poached

or

Cheese: One-quarter pound cottage or pot

Vegetables: *As desired:* asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chicory, cucumbers, escarole, eggplant, lettuce, radishes, spinach, squash, tomatoes, tomato juice, turnips, beets, Brussels sprouts, onions, canned peas

Fresh Fruit in Season: *One serving of:* apple, blackberries, grapefruit, melon, orange, peach, pineapple, raspberries, strawberries

Milk: One cup of milk or buttermilk

Beverage: Coffee, tea, *Postum*, *Sanka*

Salt in moderation. Vinegar or lemon may be used with salads.

Sample Menu:

Breakfast:

One sliced orange

Coffee with one-quarter cup milk

Luncheon:

Tomato Soup: one cup milk heated with tomato purée

Salad Plate: one-quarter pound cottage cheese, grated raw egg
watercress

Apple

Tea with lemon

Dinner:

Broiled filet of haddock

Beets with vinegar

Shredded raw cabbage with lemon juice

One-half grapefruit

Coffee

Bedtime:

One cup milk or buttermilk

Low-caloric Diet.*Approximately 1000 Calories**Breakfast:*

Fresh Fruit in Season: *One serving of:* apple, blackberries, grapefruit
melon, orange, peach, pineapple, raspberries, strawberries

Bread: One slice whole wheat

Butter: One level teaspoon

Milk: One-quarter cup
with

Beverage: Coffee, tea, *Postum*, *Sanka*

Lunch and Supper:

Meat or Fish: One-quarter pound lean meat or fresh fish, boiled, broiled,
baked; *NO* gravy

or

Eggs: Two, boiled or poached

or

Cheese: One-quarter pound cottage or pot

Vegetables: *As desired:* asparagus, string beans, beet greens, broccoli,
cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, celery cabbage, chicory, cucum-
bers, escarole, eggplant, lettuce, radishes, spinach, squash, tomato
tomato juice, turnips, beets, Brussels sprouts, onions, canned p

Fresh Fruit in Season: *One serving of:* apple, blackberries, grapefruit
melon, orange, peach, pineapple, raspberries, strawberries

Milk: One cup of milk or buttermilk

Beverage: Coffee, tea, *Postum*, *Sanka*

Use salt in moderation. Vinegar or lemon may be used with salads.

*Sample Menu.**Breakfast:*

Juice of one orange

One slice of whole wheat toast with

One teaspoon butter

Coffee with one-quarter cup of milk

Luncheon:

Broiled beef cake

Steamed carrots

Large salad of mixed greens with vinegar

One slice of pineapple, cubed

One cup of buttermilk

ato juice
 roast lamb
 ed peas
 e salad of lettuce and cucumbers
 le
 ec
 c:
 cup skim milk or buttermilk

The arrangement shown* on the Form for Office Use has proved satisfactory. It not only permits variations to be made to each patient's individual preferences and needs, but also allows for adjustments as progress is made. Intermediate feedings of caloric foods have been found extremely helpful in preventing uncontrollable hunger with consequent overeating at the next reg-meal.

Form for Office Use.

AL DIET FOR _____

Initial Weight _____ Age _____

Required Daily:

MILK (Skim or Buttermilk) _____	2. EGGS (Not fried) _____
CHEESE _____	4. MEAT or FISH _____
VEGETABLES _____	
FRUIT _____	
BEVERAGES _____	
BREAD _____	9. BUTTER _____
CEREALS _____	
MINERALS _____	12. VITAMINS _____
FLUIDS _____	

ngement of diet optional. Only three meals daily.

uggested Arrangement (*Must conform to above requirements*):

akfast:	Luncheon:	Dinner:
t, 1 portion	Meat or Fish or Eggs	Consommé or Soup (See
n milk or butter-	Vegetables	Food List)
ilk, 1 glass	Salad	Meat or Fish or Eggs
verage	Skim milk or butter-	Vegetables
	milk, 1 glass	Salad
	Beverage, 1 cup	Cottage cheese
		Skim milk or buttermilk,
		1 glass
		Beverage, 1 cup
		Dessert: Fruit or Jello

orning and Midafternoon:

1 glass tomato juice or	1 glass skim milk or
1 glass buttermilk or	1 cup tea with 1 cracker

General arrangement of this diet was suggested to the writer by Dr. E. B.
 n of Dallas, Texas.

Food List.

*Vegetables:**Group I*

Asparagus
Beans, string
Brussels sprouts
Cabbage
Cauliflower
Celery
Cucumber
Endive
Fennel
Greens, all kinds
Kohlrabi

Leeks
Lettuce
Mushrooms
Okra
Radishes
Sauerkraut
Squash
Tomatoes

Group II

Beets
Carrots

Onions
Pimentos
Pumpkin
Turnips, all kinds

Group III

Artichokes, French
Artichokes, Jerusalem
Corn
Parsnips
Peas
Salsify (oyster plant)

Meats and Fish: (Lean portions only; boiled, broiled or roasted, fried)

Beef	Bass, all kinds	Pollock
Fowl, all kinds	Bluefish	Porgy
Lamb	Codfish, fresh	Shad roe
Veal	Codfish, salt	Smelt
	Flounder	Trout
	Haddock	Weakfish
	Halibut	Whitefish
	Perch, yellow	

*Fruits:**Canned (all water-packed):*

Apricots	4 halves	Peaches	2 halves
Bartlett pears	3 halves	Pineapple juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass
Grapefruit	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	Plums	2 whole
Grapefruit juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	Prunes	2 whole

Fresh or Frozen:

Apple	1 half	Orange juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass
Berries (any kind)	$\frac{2}{3}$ glass	Peaches	1 medium
Cantaloupe	$\frac{1}{2}$ small	Pineapple	1 slice
Grapefruit	1 half	Tomato juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass
Grapefruit juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass	Watermelon	1 small slice
Oranges	1 small		

Condiments and Accessories: (May be eaten as desired.)

Salad dressings prepared with mineral oil.

Vinegar, lemon juice, garlic, paprika, mustard, horseradish, pickles, etc.

Lister's Golden Spread (butter substitute).

Bouillon cubes.

Consommé or clear vegetable soup.

Gelatin desserts.

It may readily be seen from the foregoing that numerous combinations can be devised. Enough has been said to indicate the general procedure which, if followed, will invariably bring success. It goes without saying that cases of endocrinopathy with obesity must receive special care as indicated *in addition to* dietary measures; but at the same time treatment of an endocrine imbalance *does not supplant dietary measures* for an associated obesity.

NOTE.—In prescribing any diet for obesity, constant watch should be instituted for the appearance of hypoglycemia which is not of infrequent occurrence. (See page 317.)

ORAL CONDITIONS AND DISEASES.

IRVING A. SWANSON, D.M.D.

General Considerations.—The view, long held, of dentistry concerning a separate entity of medicine has added needless confusion to the complexity already entailed in reaching a diagnosis on related symptoms. Today, a tooth, a finger, and a toe are known to be as closely related, and to contribute as much to the condition of the body, as any other organ in the body. Scientific approach to the treatment of a tooth cannot differ from any other medical procedure involving nutrition or a specialized knowledge of dietetics. To differentiate the normal from the abnormal dental condition, all available medical history and additional dietary information, including functional habits, must be recorded in detail.

Normal Dental Structures.—To understand the nutrition of teeth and the investing tissues, a knowledge of their anatomical and chemical compositions is essential.

Enamel.—The outermost and visible structure of a tooth, the hardest structure in the body, is composed of about 4 per cent of organic keratin, a trace of calcium fluoride, and inorganic salts, 96.7 per cent, viz.:

	<i>Per cent.</i>
Calcium phosphate	89.82
Calcium carbonate	4.37
Magnesium phosphate	1.34
Other salts	0.88

Histologically, the inorganic substance represents hexagonal prisms or rods cemented by the limited organic substance which the observers maintain permits functional diffusion of substances for nourishment. The enamel depends for its formation on ameloblastic cells which govern calcification and deposition.

Dentine.—It directly underlies the enamel and the cementum of the root. Dentine development depends upon odontoblastic cells which act in building and calcifying dentine similar to osteoblasts in the building of bone. It is composed of 28 per cent organic matter (collagen plus elastin), 10 per cent water, and inorganic salts, 62 per cent, viz.:

	<i>Per cent.</i>
Calcium phosphate	47.0
Calcium carbonate	6.5
Calcium fluoride	2.5
Magnesium phosphate	2.0
Sodium salts	4.0

Dentine contains living protoplasm and tubules through which the tooth is abundantly supplied with nutrition from the innermost structure, the pulp. Whether the enamel is also supplied with nutrition is still a matter of conjecture,

Cementum.—The root or invisible portion of the tooth is covered by a substance similar to bone, and by the aid of pericemental tissue fibers connects the tooth to the surrounding, supporting alveolar bone where it receives its nutrition.

Pulp.—The nutritive supply to the dentine and possibly enamel comprises an arteriole, venule, and nerve, becoming a capillary network supported in vascular connective tissue. These vessels are branches of the larger vessels in the jaw bone and gain entrance to the tooth chamber through the apical foramen.

Pericementum and Gingival Tissue.—The cementum of the tooth is directly connected with a fibrous elastic tissue which closely resembles periosteum and which is nourished by the main vascular supply, derived from narrow spaces bordering the alveolar bone where its attachment is maintained. Thus a tooth is nourished after the pulp has been removed or becomes diseased.

Alveolar Bone or Process.—This consists of an osseous structure developed on the bodies of the maxilla and mandible for the purpose of supporting the teeth. This bone consists of a peripheral plate of compact bone under which is cancellated osseous tissue. In depressions or alveoli, this bone supports the tooth roots. It is lined by the periodontal membrane which gives protection and nourishment, being continuous with the peripheral periosteum. After tooth loss this bone has no further function, and undergoes resorption.

Mandible and Maxilla.—These resemble other osseous tissues of the body. Bone is a connective tissue in which the intercellular substance has undergone calcification. It is composed of organic and inorganic substances.

Organic Substances:

Connective tissue, cells, intercellular substance, blood vessels, nerves, bone-marrow.

Inorganic Substance:

	<i>Per Cent.</i>
Calcium phosphate	51.0
Calcium carbonate	11.0
Calcium fluoride	2.0
Magnesium phosphate	1.0
Sodium chloride	1.0

Chronology of Human Dentition

To understand clearly at what periods in life nutrition of the dental structure should be controlled by diet, a knowledge of the embryonic formation, eruption and calcification periods must be known. The following tabulation is after Rudolph Kronfeld, 1902, from Brennemann.

Embryonic Development.

1. *Deciduous Dentition:* (Enamel organs for the 20 deciduous teeth are present in the 2½ months' embryo.)

First evidence of the calcification of crowns:

Central incisor 5 months *in utero*

Deciduous Dentition.—(Continued)

Lateral incisor	5 months <i>in utero</i>
First molar	5 months <i>in utero</i>
Cuspid	6 months <i>in utero</i>
Second molars	6 months <i>in utero</i>

Permanent Dentition:

Orbital organs for the permanent dentition are first present:

First molars	17 weeks	} Embryonic Period
Incisors	24 weeks	
Cuspid	25 weeks	
First premolars	29 weeks	
Second premolars	33 weeks	
Second molars	6 months after birth	
Third molars (wisdom teeth)	5 years after birth	

Calcification of Crowns.

<i>Lower jaw</i>	<i>First evidence</i>	<i>Completed</i>
First molars	9 months	2½–3 years
Central incisor	3–4 months	4–5 years
Lateral incisor	3–4 months	4–5 years
Cuspid	4–5 months	6–7 years
First premolar	1¾–2 years	5–6 years
Second premolar	2¼–2½ years	6–7 years
Second molar	2½–3 years	7–8 years
Third molar	8–10 years	12–16 years
<i>Upper jaw</i>		
First molar	9 months	2½–3 years
Central incisor	3–4 months	4–5 years
Cuspid	4–5 months	6–7 years
Lateral incisor	1 year	4–5 years
First premolar	1½–1¾ years	5–6 years
Second premolar	2–2¼ years	6–7 years
Second molar	2½–3 years	7–8 years
Third molar	7–9 years	12–16 years

Tooth Eruption.

Deciduous Dentition:

Central incisors, mandibular	6–8th month
Central incisors, maxillary	8–10th month
Lateral incisors, maxillary	8–10th month
Lateral incisors, mandibular	12–14th month
First molars, maxillary and mandibular	12–16th month
Canines, maxillary and mandibular	16–20th month
Second molars, maxillary and mandibular	20–30th month

Permanent Dentition:

<i>Lower jaw</i>	
First molars	6–7 years
Central incisor	6–7 years
Lateral incisor	7–8 years
First premolars	10–12 years
Canine	10–11 years
Second premolars	11–12 years
Second molar	12–13 years
Third molar	17–30 years

Tooth Eruption.—(Continued)

Upper jaw

First molar	6-7 years
Central incisor	7-8 years
Lateral incisor	8-9 years
First premolar	10-11 years
Canine	11-12 years
Second premolar	10-12 years
Second molar	12-14 years
Third molar	17-30 years

Root Calcification Periods. The eruption periods indicate the beginning of root calcification.

Deciduous

	<i>Completed</i>
Central incisor	1½-2 years
Lateral incisor	1½-2 years
Canine	2½-3 years
First molar	2-2½ years
Second molar	3 years

Permanent—Lower jaw

Central incisor	9 years
First molar	9-10 years
Lateral incisor	10 years
First premolar	12-13 years
Canine	12-14 years
Second premolar	13-14 years
Second molar	14-15 years
Third molar	18-25 years

Permanent—Upper jaw

First molar	9-10 years
Central incisor	10 years
Lateral incisor	11 years
First premolar	12-13 years
Canine	13-15 years
Second premolar	12-14 years
Second molar	14-16 years
Third molar	18-25 years

Environmental and Racial Influences.—Diet is a pot-pourri of the foods of the world. Most countries are celebrated for one more distinguishing features of their culinary art. Foods are inherited or borrowed from almost every quarter of the globe. The instability inherent in this practice has resulted in a poisoning of the digestive systems not immune to tissue abuse.

Subsisting on foods natural to the climate and area, man is supplied with teeth and investing bone tissue rarely corrupted by the rigors of a restricted diet. Tooth decay usually followed the importation of strange, exotic foods and the habits of civilization.

Inheritance and Endocrine Factors.—Nature never permits inheritance of diseased tissue, but man, through abuses in diet and habits, does hand down to his offspring poorly nourished and underdeveloped tissue. Dental tissue can never be rebuilt. After the developmental period of growth, it retains its initial formation and can be nourished only to the extent of preventing further destruction, and the strengthening of that tissue already formed.

conditions exist in the mother, the fetus and the embryo determine the health of the teeth in the unborn child. Amongst the most confusing and perhaps those playing the most important part are the glandular disturbances which require the individual attention of the physician and dentist alike. Due to the limited knowledge and obscurity of diagnosis, many glandular irregularities create an otherwise dietary problem.

The glands, intimately associated with calcium metabolism, attract our attention because tooth and bone growth are dependent upon the normal calcium balance of the individual.

There exists in the body a very efficient mechanism for calcium and phosphorus regulation, dominated as to fixation by vitamin D, and as to mobilization by the parathyroid glands.

Other glands in the body, such as the thyroid, the pituitary and the ductless glands, will likewise manifest irregularities in metabolism and nutrition.

Dental Abnormalities Due to Glandular Irregularities.—*Dyspituitarism (Acromegaly).* Among other symptoms this dysfunction presents an enlargement of the head and jaws with the ultimate distortion of the dental arches separating the teeth and prohibiting normal function.

Hypothyroidism (Myxedema).—Dryness of the mucous membranes accompanies the skin dryness manifested in this adult disease. Salivation is diminished, the teeth loosen and fall out.

Pro侑retinism.—A congenital and hereditary dwarfism with an underdeveloped head and jaw bones (osteopathysosis), with spongy gingivae, bleeding gums and loosening of the teeth. Eruption of the teeth sometimes never occurs and is always greatly retarded. When eruption does occur, the teeth are only partially retained.

Hypoparathyroidism (Tetany).—Control of the utilization of calcium salts is interfered with. Diseases in this gland result in arrested development and poorly calcified teeth and jaw bones.

In order to proceed systematically on any dental dietary problem, a thorough medical report on the metabolism and glandular function of the individual must be recorded and irregularities arrested.

Causes of Tooth Decay.

Many theories have been advanced as to the specific causes of tooth decay. As we sum up the evidence which has accumulated and been presented at different intervals, it is obvious that all must be considered.

The Miller Theory (Chemico-parasitic).—Food and plaque adhered to the crown of a tooth undergoes fermentation by the action of bacteria and their proteolytic enzymes. Dilute acids formed then etch the enamel and decalcification occurs, allowing the entrance of bacteria to the organic dentine which undergoes solution.

The Nutritional Theory.—As early as the period of Galen, tooth decay was described as a "complex nutritional disturbance." Today this theory has been supported and demonstrated by Howe, Barker, the Mellanbys, Windaus, Hess, Hanke and others.

III. The Hydrogen Ion Theory. The inorganic substance of the tooth may be altered by a replacement of hydroxyl groups by certain ions such as fluorides, other halides and perhaps carbonate ions.

Calcium and Phosphorus Requirements.

Calcium.—The amount of calcium in the normal adult body should be 1.45 per cent of the body weight. Ninety-nine per cent of this is in the bones and teeth. At least 1.0 gram of calcium is necessary in the daily diet for every 100 grams of protein. During pregnancy and lactation this should be increased.

Phosphorus.—The average minimal requirement for phosphorus for a 70-kg. adult is 0.88 gram per day (2 grams as P_2O_5) or 10 to 20 mg. per kg. One-fortieth to one-fiftieth as much phosphorus is required in the diet as protein.

Children should ingest 1.2 to 1.5 grams of phosphorus per kg. or 9 to 11 mg. per cm. of height.

The minimum requirement of calcium and phosphorus as advocated by LaMer is:

For the adult	0.68 gram Ca
	1.32 gram P

For children	Twice the amount
------------------------	------------------

For lactating and

For pregnant women	Three times the amount
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Refer also to page 116.

Before a woman gives thought to having a child, she should first ascertain by a complete medical examination that her body is in normal healthy condition. A diet proper for her is absolutely necessary for the demands which Nature will make upon her mineral salt reserve during pregnancy.

On the assumption that no disease or abnormal condition complicates the considerations, there are four important factors which govern a normal diet from the standpoint of developing normal tooth structures, viz.:

- I. Amount of ingested salts.
- II. Sunlight, artificial or natural.
- III. Glandular activity.
- IV. Vitamins C and D.

A deficiency in any of the vitally needed substances known as vitamins results in local and systemic manifestations. Lack of proper vitamin nutrition is apparent by specific indications in the teeth and oral cavity.

Most experimentation has been conducted on animals. Results suggest that reactions would be similar in man. After careful observation, such has proved to be the case with little variation. Eddy has shown that 3 cc. of orange juice per day is required by

and guinea-pig to insure freedom from changes in the pulps of teeth. If we assume that man and the guinea-pig are equally susceptible to a vitamin C deficiency, a 150-pound man would require 450 cc. (1 pint) of orange juice a day. This is the amount Blanke and others have empirically determined to be adequate. *Results from a Deficiency of Vitamin A.*—The odontoblastic cells of dentine lose their specialized function and revert to osteoblastic characteristics which result in lessened calcification. Teeth of this nature are known as the malacotic or soft teeth because of their low percentage of mineral matter. Osteoblasts are not affected by this deficiency which points out that only specialization tissue during its functional period is inhibited.

Wolbach has interpreted the pathology in experimental animals. The acinar and duct epithelium in salivary glands is replaced by flattened, keratinized desquamating epithelium and the saliva is reduced. The sinuses and glands at the base of the tongue become susceptible to pus-forming organisms.

According to Bessey and Wolbach (1938) "in all probability, Vitamin A deficiency during the formative period of teeth outranks in human being all other vitamin deficiencies in importance."

Results from a Deficiency of Vitamin B₁.—There is an impairment of appetite and digestion, lessening the salivary secretions. Nervous disorders are increased, teeth do not respond to normal reflexes, reduced nerve supply and tissue tone are upset by the loss of normal nutrition.

Results from a Deficiency of Vitamin C.—Osteoporosis is produced in the teeth exactly as is seen in cases of lack of calcium or after removing the parathyroids. The pulps of the teeth become necrosed, alveolar bone fragile, the gums swollen and red, predisposing to pyorrhea with a tendency to hemorrhage and bleeding gums.

Results from a Deficiency of Vitamin D.—Muscular and skeletal weakness, underdeveloped malformed jaws, crowded teeth, caries and susceptibility to nose, throat and mouth infections. In complete absence, infantile tetany, rickets and osteomalacia with very acute and destructive changes in the teeth and investing tissues. Vitamin D is a general catalytic vitamin when acting with calcium, phosphorus and the other vitamins.

Results from a Deficiency of Vitamin E.—The sex organs play an important rôle in the development of body growth and function, especially in the male. Lack of vitamin E lessens the development of facial characteristics, jaw bones and muscles of mastication.

Results from a Deficiency of Vitamin G.—Inflammatory stomatitic infections of the mouth and loss of appetite and salivary stimulation.

The Normal Diet for Proper Dentition.

What should the diet consist of? This has been the question confronting the medical and dental professions year after year, with acceptance today and rejection tomorrow. There are six fundamental principles essential to the healthy individual's diet, viz.:

- I. The food must be palatable, available and suited to the dietary habits of the individual.
- II. There should be an abundant supply of vitamins. Refer to page 48.
- III. Proteins adequate for growth and maintenance are necessary. Refer to page 106.
- IV. The diet must contain fuel (Calories) sufficient to maintain the normal weight. Refer to page 101.
- V. There must be sufficient mineral salts for the needs of the body. Refer to pages 113 and 144.
- VI. Bulk or residue is essential to satisfy the desire for substantial amounts and to stimulate normal bowel function.

Investigation by research workers has led to a wide difference of opinions as to the quantity of vitamins needed by individuals. Therefore, these levels have been raised higher and higher in order to satisfy the belief that the individual needs more than "just enough." In addition, the mineral requirements have suffered the same fate so that the diets are supplemented by additional calcium phosphate, about 2 grams daily.

Periods of Tooth Nutrition.

The development and nutrition of a tooth must be considered from the changes occurring in five important periods.

- I. The mother's health before conception.
- II. The prenatal (embryonic) period.
- III. Infancy, suckling to age six.
- IV. Childhood to fifteen years.
- V. Early youth to maturity.

I. *The Mother.*—Every woman has at some time during her period of pregnancy wished that her health before conception had been better. That weakening period when she is called upon to give all her effort and strength is far too late in the game that Nature plays to go back and strengthen her reserve of mineral salts. "For every child a tooth" as the price that the mother pays, is not far from the truth when we analyze gram for gram what goes into the diet and what is expected to be built from it. What foods should the expectant mother choose? Refer to page 412.

Typical High-calcium Menu.

Sample Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit
 Whole grain cereal with milk and sugar
 Egg, except fried
 Whole grain toast or roll with butter
 Milk or hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar

Typical High-calcium Menu.—(*Continued.*)

on:

am of vegetable soup
s or cheese
oked vegetables
ad with dressing
ole grain bread with butter
sh or stewed fruit
lk

er:

at or fish
tato
oked vegetable
ad with dressing
hole grain bread with butter
uple pudding or cheese and whole grain crackers
lk or cocoa

ime:

uttermilk or milk

. *Pre-natal (Embryonic) Period.*

This is the important period for the formation of the primary skeleton, beginning at two and one-half months, and the permanent skeleton at 17 weeks on to birth. The pregnant woman should get 2 grams of calcium daily. If the mother can maintain her normal calcium metabolism in balance, calculations show an increased demand in the second half of pregnancy of 20 per cent for developing embryo. Insufficiency of the intake or increase of output of calcium must provoke a calcium imbalance. During pregnancy the insufficiency occurs physiologically during the period of growth. Increased output occurs during lactation.

Dietary Changes During Normal Pregnancy:

Calories	400 increase over normal
Protein	75 to 100 grams daily

Where the first period has had insufficient mineral salts, it is customary to supplement this diet with concentrated calcium and phosphorus salts, such as the lactate, gluconate, or dicalcium phosphate, to 2 grams daily.

Refer elsewhere for a suggested diet.

II. *Period of Infancy, Suckling to Age Six.*

The new-born infant possesses 27 grams of calcium, that is, 1.0 per cent of its weight in comparison to the adult, 1.5 per cent. The suckling increases the first month about 30 grams daily: 0.27 gram of calcium corresponds to this increase in weight. The mother's milk

contains 0.03 per cent of calcium. The suckling should get there 35 ounces of milk. This is not the case, the child being in calcium imbalance in the first period of lactation. As growth becomes normal the calcium in the mother's milk is sufficient. When cow's milk is given with little if any maternal milk, an extra supply of calcium is not indicated. This is the period when calcium-insufficiency may occur frequently in the mother. Normal breast feeding should always be the choice unless the health of the mother contraindicates. The growth of face, jaws and muscles of mastication are directly dependent on the normal exercise of breast feeding. Nature is not wrong if her teaching and natural impulses guide us to normal feeding. Man makes the mistake of changing the elementary rules and the health of the offspring suffers.

IV. Period of Childhood to Fifteen Years.

During this time any deficiency in the earlier periods will be manifested. This period will register forever on the permanent teeth. Rickets will appear to show faulty calcium metabolism. By continuing the chain of mineral salt nutrition in this period and by observing an excess in calcium balance, the erupting teeth are certain to be properly nourished.

New experimentation indicates that fluorine in the drinking water amounting to 1 P.P.M. (part per million), sufficient to cause only mild fluorosis or slightly less, will prevent dental caries.

A vast amount of experimentation involving a national survey of soil and drinking water with analysis for fluorine will be necessary before conclusive evidence is obtained.

It is interesting to note that in areas where fluorine content is high and caries incidence low, the content of calcium and phosphorus in the soil is also high.

DIET FOR ADOLESCENCE.

- 1 qt. milk, minimum
- 1 or 2 eggs
- 1 serving meat, fish or liver
- 2 vegetables high in calcium, such as broccoli, cauliflower, kale, watercress, endive, turnip greens
- 1 orange, apple, or tomato
- 1 additional fruit
- 1 teaspoon cod-liver oil
- 6 teaspoons butter
- Ice-cream, chocolate, figs, almonds, filberts, and citron.

V. Period of Early Youth to Maturity.

This is the time that all the foundation of mineralization will be taxed to its full extent. Students are not closely observed. They adopt habits and dietary schemes of their own choosing with improper care with the tooth brush and mouth hygiene. If this period passes without a breakdown and the value of the completed dental arches can be impressed upon the individual, no further dental

es should occur in life, on the assumption that other systemic conditions continue and a sustaining diet be maintained. Normal diet during this period is of more importance than any specialized selected diet for maintenance of calcification.

ORAL DISEASES.

After considering the normal, the abnormal systemic reactions now complicate the dental problem. The mouth is Nature's way to the nourishment of the body. It is also the index of oral health and systemic diseases. A physical examination would short in exactness without recording the oral conditions. Many localized mouth problems are overshadowed by remote systemic aggravation. No treatments or dietary procedures should be prescribed without careful consideration of all the contributing factors. A diet with the essential requisites of overcoming acidosis (diabetic ketosis) is always the aim in clearing the dental picture.

Stomatitis.

This is an acute or chronic superficial inflammation of the oral mucosa, combined with redness, soreness, slight epithelial desquamation, dryness or most frequently serous exudate. Associated with the simple we must consider the acute ulcero-membranous gingivitis.

Ultero-Membranous Gingivitis.

Synonyms.—Plaut-Vincent's infection, trench mouth, spirofusillary fusospirillary gingivitis, fusospirillosis, necrotic gingivitis, epidemic ulcerous gingivitis, stomatocace, etc.

This disease results in destructive inflammation of the gingival margin, including the papillæ and spreading over the adjacent tissues as it progresses. It is characterized by a fetid odor, salivation, irritation, severe pain and fever with enlarged lymph nodes. Recent clinical findings show a lessening of the period of treatment when the diet is supplemented with vitamins B₁ and B₂ in addition to nicotinic acid therapy. Refer also to page 72.

Advise.—Three quarts of diluted citrus juices *per diem*, broth, soft-boiled eggs, fish, steamed soft vegetables, boiled or pasteurized milk, ice-cream, stewed fruits, cold drinks, milk toast with egg, oatmeal, bananas, gelatin desserts, sponge cake.

Omit.—Tobacco, highly spiced and salted foods, pickles, alcohol, hard, coarse foods and cereals requiring chewing, cake, pies, puddings, carbonated water, etc., spinach, rhubarb, strawberries, raspberries, currants, peas, beets, carrots, rye and white bread, copy seed rolls, chocolate products and condiments, nuts, and hardened butter.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit juice (also use liberally between meals)
Strained cereal with cream and sugar
Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

Typical Menu.—(Continued.)*Luncheon:*

Minced meat *or* soft-cooked eggs
 Mashed potatoes
 Finely chopped vegetables
 Simple soft dessert, ripe banana *or* mashed stewed fruit
 Milk

Dinner:

Cream *or* strained soup
 Minced meat *or* fish
 Mashed potatoes
 Finely chopped vegetables
 Mashed stewed fruit
 Milk *or* cocoa

Periodontoclasia, "Pyorrhea Alveolaris."

This is a destructive inflammatory progressing necrosis of the gingival gum tissue, involving the alveolus and completely destroying the attachment of the tooth in its socket, resulting in its loosening and falling out. Despite intense study and close investigation through many years, the etiology of this disease still remains obscure.

After the surgical procedure of removing the irritating calcareous deposits attached to the teeth and the necrotic gingival tissue, the dietary problem becomes important. It is, however, fairly conceded that the disease is caused by both local and constitutional factors. When the gums have healed sufficiently to withstand stimulation, foods requiring mastication to exercise gums and produce firm granulation tissue should be included in each meal. Foods with a high calcium content are necessary to keep a supply of mineral matter in the blood stream to strengthen the alveolus. Refer elsewhere for distribution of minerals.

Foods Which Exercise the Gums.—Meats: fruits—apples, pears, oranges, peaches, melons; nuts; cereals; vegetables—corn, carrots (raw); salad vegetables—lettuce, celery, cabbage, watercress, artichokes, avocados.

Acute and Chronic Inflammatory and Suppurative Conditions of the Dental Alveolus.

These conditions are always the sequelæ of the death of the pulp of a tooth. Infection passes through the apico foramen, involving the periapical tissues, bone and lymph stream.

After surgical intervention and thorough intestinal evacuation the dietary problem becomes important. Fluids are taken in large amounts to combat the infection and to stimulate toxin elimination through the kidneys. A high-protein diet is prescribed to rebuild the injured tissue. A low-fat and high-carbohydrate diet is indicated to overcome acidosis (ketosis). Refer elsewhere for Tabulation of Food Factors.

Osteomyelitis.

Inflammation of the jaw bones may either be the result of infection involving the periosteum (periostitis), or the marrow (osteomyelitis), following alveolar abscess, stomatitis, or severe injury. Stomatitis or osteomyelitis may end in caries or molecular destruction of the bone, or necrosis or death of a portion of the bone *en masse*. When this infection occurs in the lower jaw, not so frequently in the upper, the process is nearly always accompanied by formation of a shell of new bone surrounding the inflammatory focus. The diet should consist of high calcium-containing foods to supply the need for new bone. Foods requiring hard mastication should be avoided to prevent possible fracture. Refer elsewhere for Foods Highest in Calcium.

Jaw Fracture.

After the jaw fragments have been approximated, their union requires from six to eight weeks. During the period of immobilization, the patient must subsist on liquid and semi-solid food. This can be taken through a tube or sipped through the interdental spaces if no tooth or teeth have been extracted. Teeth are never removed for this purpose, with the exception of the third molars. In most fracture cases there is usually enough space between the teeth to admit semi-solid foods. If such a case presents itself with the dental arches completed and with the full complement of teeth, fluids only will have to be resorted to. Temperatures of extreme heat and cold such as hot soups and ice-cream, should be avoided to prevent burns and sensitive teeth. Most of the masticatory motion takes place with the lips and cheeks forcing the food through the interdental spaces, after which the tongue and the roof of the hard palate complete the act. The mouth should be thoroughly rinsed after each meal. High-Calcium, Liquid and Semi-solid Diets are suitable for jaw fracture cases. Refer elsewhere for Foods Highest in Calcium, Fluid Foods and Soft Foods.

Summary.

In conclusion, the nutrition of the tooth is dependent upon five factors in the growth of dental structure. The diet of a woman before conception determines health and prepares her physically for the demands to be made upon her mineral salt reserve. During pregnancy a high mineral diet must be continued. The diet of infancy is directly dependent for the calcification of the teeth upon the mother's mineral balance. The proper composition of artificial formulae is necessary when breast feeding is not resorted to. The mineral foundation of the teeth can be lost in early childhood and destroyed for youth by a restricted and unbalanced diet. If the chain of mineral and vitamin diet is maintained with a healthy body, through five foundation periods, the ideal dental structure can be obtained. Other influences that cannot be ignored are proper amounts of sunshine, exercise, rest, periodic physical and

dental examinations. When the dental structure is diseased or injured, the proper diet is important to alleviate the painful symptoms and to assist in restoring dental health.

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PANCREATIC DISEASES

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Discussion.—The function of the pancreas in regulating carbohydrate metabolism by means of the internal secretion of insulin is well known. The external secretion of pancreatic juice is transmitted to the intestinal tract by means of the pancreatic duct. Its digestive enzymes, trypsin, amylase and lipase are essential for the proper digestion of food. The flow of pancreatic juice is stimulated by the secretion formed in the mucosa of the duodenum in response to the stimulation of food. Various types of inflammatory disturbances occur in the pancreas as a result of irritation or inflammation of the pancreatic tissue, usually secondary to obstruction of the flow of pancreatic secretion. Involvement of the Islands of Langerhans by tumors or other lesions results in metabolic disturbances primarily concerned with carbohydrate metabolism.

Pancreatitis, Acute.—Acute pancreatitis may vary in severity from a relatively mild interstitial form characterized primarily by edema to an acute hemorrhagic form which may be rapidly fatal. The acute symptoms may be preceded by those of a chronic cholecystitis or cholelithiasis, with which the acute pancreatitis is frequently associated. The initial acute epigastric or umbilic pain from which these patients suffer is apt to occur after alcoholic excesses, or a heavy meal. The pain may be in the left upper quadrant and radiate to the back. Nausea and vomiting, chills and fever are common. In the acute hemorrhagic form there is cyanosis, shock, collapse, coma and frequently sudden death. On physical examination the typical findings are those of an extremely toxic and cyanotic patient in shock; the milder forms are less acute.

There is tenderness without rigidity in the epigastrium and the upper quadrant, the pulse is rapid and weak. The diagnosis is confirmed by the presence of an elevation in the blood serum amylase and lipase, which however may be transient.

The initial treatment is supportive and consists in the liberal use of intravenous fluids such as 5 per cent glucose and 5 per cent sodium hydrolysate. Plasma is sometimes necessary for the control of shock. Penicillin in large doses seems to have been beneficial in acute febrile conditions, probably those associated with infection.

If, following the acute initial symptoms, the patient shows improvement on medical and supportive therapy, the medical regimen of supportive treatment supplanted later by pancreatic extracts and vitamins may suffice. If, however, prompt improvement does not occur, Whipple advises laparotomy, the operation of choice being a cholecystectomy to drain the bile and relieve the pressure on the pancreas, with peritoneal drainage as well.

Pancreatitis, Chronic.—A chronic fibrosis of the pancreas may occur, either of an intralobular or interacinar type. The underlying pathological process is considered degenerative or inflammatory, and in some cases a resulting calcification of the pancreas which may be identified by lateral films of the abdomen. The history of these patients is that of chronic indigestion, usually over a period of many years, commonly associated with alcoholism. Pain is the most common symptom; it is epigastric in location, tends to radiate to the back and is recurrent in character. Diarrhea is also common, the multiple stools are large, frothy and fatty in appearance as well as foul in odor. With this condition there may or may not be an elevation in the blood serum amylase and lipase.

The treatment of chronic pancreatitis consists of the use of pancreatic extracts, 5 to 10 grains or more of the triple strength preparation being given after meals. If there is an associated diabetes mellitus, this condition should receive appropriate treatment. The diet recommended is the high protein diet, No. 6, with vitamin supplements. The carbohydrate and fat content of this diet should be reduced to a minimum.

Tumors of the Pancreas.—The most common tumor of the pancreas is carcinoma, which may involve the head or the body of the gland. It is difficult to differentiate from carcinoma of the common bile duct. The onset may be a painless jaundice or there may be considerable epigastric pain which tends to radiate to the back. Loss of weight and strength occurs with anemia. An enlarged palpable gall-bladder is usually found with carcinoma of the head of the pancreas. The diagnosis is confirmed by the findings of duodenal drainage, in which there is frequently an absence of duodenal bile and pancreatic ferments. There may be blood in the duodenal contents. The x-ray examination reveals at times a deformity of the duodenum, a widening or actual filling defect.

The treatment of carcinoma of the pancreas is surgical, the operation of pancreatectomy and duodenectomy of Whipple is indicated. Pre-operatively the high protein, high vitamin diet is indicated (No. 6), with the necessary supportive intravenous fluids.

Adenomata of the pancreas form another group of pancreatic tumors which are of interest from the viewpoint of their associated metabolic disturbances. These tumors commonly involve the Islets of Langerhans, with a resulting hyperinsulinism and hypoglycemia which gives characteristically periods of extreme weakness and asthenia. During these spells the blood sugar is greatly reduced; the diagnosis is confirmed by a glucose tolerance test, carried out over a period of five hours. Similar findings may occur with functional hypoglycemia.

The treatment of tumors is the surgical removal of the tumor. The preceding dietary treatment is preferably a high protein, low carbohydrate diet. Diet No. 6 (p. 399) may be used, with small meals and intermediate feedings.

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PELLAGRA.

Discussion.—Pellagra presents a wide variety of symptoms referable to the skin, gastro-intestinal tract, and nervous system. Its etiology appears at last to have been found in nicotinic acid deficiency, due cognizance being taken of the fact that riboflavin and thiamin deficiencies are usually concomitant. The outstanding recent contributions (1935–1939) to the treatment of pellagra are those of Spies. Adequate doses (page 73) of nicotinic acid and related compounds will heal the pellagrous glossitis, stomatitis, vaginitis, urethritis, and proctitis; will blanch early erythematous lesions; will restore at least some measure of gastro-intestinal function; and will lead to a prompt remission of mental abnormalities.

To quote from Spies and his co-workers (*Annals of Internal Medicine*, **12**, 1830, 1939): "The development of severe pellagra can, in most instances, be avoided if the disease is recognized in its early forms and treated appropriately. It is apparent, from a study of many pellagrins, that there is a long prodromal period of ill health. This period has insidiously advancing symptoms, all trivial in nature, but gaining in importance by their persistence. Loss of weight, strength, and appetite precede the appearance of any diagnostic oral or dermal lesions. During this early stage, ill-defined disturbances of the alimentary tract, including indigestion, indy-

diarrhea or constipation, as well as weakness and lassitude without obvious reason. Irritability, depression, loss of energy, headache and insomnia are noted. Other early symptoms characteristic of a deficiency of the anti-pellagric factors include neural pain, burning sensations in various parts of the body, numbness, nervousness, palpitation, distractibility, flight of ideas, apprehension, and mental confusion. There is obviously something that is abnormal but nothing which is pathognomonic. The syndrome of vague, grumbling complaints appears to be without objective cause and if a patient is seen at this stage of the disease pellagra is not suspected or suggested, a diagnosis of neurasthenia may be entertained by the physician.

An early diagnosis of pellagra is made possible by the recognition of these prodromal symptoms if they are associated with prolonged existence on an inadequate diet; if they occur in persons who have a fault in ingesting, assimilating, or utilizing food because of a chronic disease; or if they appear in persons whose requirement for anti-pellagric substances is increased by pregnancy, lactation, hyperthyroidism, infection, or increased physical exercise. The development of clinical pellagra can be prevented in these subclinical cases by the administration of adequate amounts of nicotinic acid. Following its administration these persons experience an increase in the sense of well-being and vigor almost immediately. Indigestion is relieved, nausea ceases, and bowel function is restored to normal. Nervousness, irritability, and mental confusion disappear rapidly following adequate dosage, and the vague burning sensations in various parts of the body disappear soon after treatment is initiated. Although improvement in symptoms arising from the alimentary tract and cerebral cortex is striking, many of the pellagrins develop optic neuritis which becomes worse in spite of continued therapy with nicotinic acid or related compounds. (The administration of massive doses of nicotinic acid does not relieve either the painful symptoms of beriberi, arising from involvement of the peripheral nerves, or the symptoms of riboflavin deficiency which arise from lesions around the mouth, nose, eyes, and ears, whereas the administration of synthetic thiamin hydrochloride and synthetic riboflavin, respectively, is followed by prompt disappearance of these symptoms.)

The amount of nicotinic acid needed to relieve these early symptoms and to prevent the development of clinical pellagra cannot be predicted, nor can it be determined other than by frequent examination of the patient. The amount needed by an individual may vary from time to time and often it is necessary to adjust the dosage to meet this changing need. There is also considerable variation in the amount needed by different patients. As little as 50 milligrams may be effective in some cases, while 500 to 1000 milligrams is sometimes required in others, although this is seldom necessary. The therapeutic effect of these substances is proportional not only to the total dosage, but also to the size and frequency of the individual dose. That is to say, the oral administration of ten doses of

50 milligrams each at hourly intervals is more effective than a single dose of 500 milligrams. This suggests that the controlling factor is the concentration of compounds of nicotinic acid in the blood and tissues.

"Observations on the children in several hundred 'pellagra families' have shown that many of these children have early clinical signs of pellagra. Such children often have a history as follows: For years they have been somewhat below normal in weight and height; their progress in school has been slow; their inability to concentrate is apparent; and they have few interests. Frequently they complain of poor appetite, indigestion, vomiting, soreness of the tongue and lips, and constipation. Their parents report that they are cross, 'fretful,' and cry easily. A careful check on the dietary history of the family often shows that the diet of the mother during pregnancy was inadequate and that shortly after birth the child failed to be given food of some sort as the mother gave insufficient milk. Hence, from a short time after birth, such children have frequently been a 'feeding problem.' In addition, many of these children show a preference for only one or two foods and refuse all others. The diet is usually rich in carbohydrates, and when milk, eggs and meat are included, they rarely are given in sufficient amounts. When the children have clinical evidence of the disease as shown by characteristic glossitis or dermatitis, there can be no question of the diagnosis, and nicotinic acid therapy is as effective as it is in adult pellagrins. However, spectacular improvement following therapy with nicotinic acid or some closely related anti-pellagic compound has been noted in many children who have subsisted over long periods of time on an inadequate diet but who show none of the diagnostic symptoms of pellagra. In general, the complaints of these children have been similar to those of adults. Likewise, the method of study was similar but the amount of nicotinic acid given was less. Within twenty-four to thirty-six hours after the administration of nicotinic acid there was prompt improvement in general health and disappearance of the various complaints. Usually, these children were given a total daily dose, varying from 50 to 300 milligrams. We recommend that this total dose be given in from 5 to 10 tablets at least one hour apart. Children from two to six years of age are usually given tablets of the 10 milligram size, and those up to puberty are given tablets of the 25 milligram size. In treating clinical beriberi and clinical riboflavin deficiency occurring in these children, we gave one-half the amount of synthetic thiamin hydrochloride and synthetic riboflavin recommended below* for an adult."

The diet of the pellagrin is inadequate in calories, protein, calcium, iron, and vitamins. Lean meat, milk, eggs, fresh fruit and vegetables will meet this need but often are not economically possible since the disease is most common among poverty-stricken people. Similar deficiency, however, may result from illness, chronic alcoholism or addiction to diet fads.

The dietary management of pellagra as outlined by Sebrell (1938) involves:

1. Inclusion in the diet of at least 1 quart of milk daily.
 2. A diet of 3000 to 4000 Cal. or more, utilizing those foods rich in the P-P factor, especially liver and lean meats.
 3. Not less than 30 grams and up to 200 grams (or more) daily of pure, dried powdered yeast, depending on the severity of the attack.
 4. Liver extracts, either orally or parenterally, in very large doses in severe cases.
 5. Feedings at frequent intervals and careful, individual nursing to see that the patient eats and retains the large amount of food necessary.
 6. Symptomatic treatment as indicated.
 7. Nicotinic acid orally or parenterally as indicated, in sufficient dosage to relieve acute symptoms rapidly.
- As stressed by Sebrell, liver extracts are of value as an adjunct to nicotinic acid, yeast, and dietary treatment, and as a means of parenteral administration of the P-P factor when severe vomiting and diarrhea render oral administration impractical. Since these extracts are prepared and standardized for their effect in pernicious anemia, they may prove to be relatively worthless in pellagra unless employed in apparently excessive amounts. For the oral route, Sebrell recommends 75 to 100 grams of liver extract daily, for intravenous therapy three to five doses of 20 cc. each.
- To prevent recurrence of pellagra, a diet should be devised which is reasonably practical for the patient. Where the patient cannot or will not obtain suitable food, it may be necessary to prescribe nicotinic acid. Such a practice must, at present, be heartily condemned.

PEMPHIGUS.

Refer to page 305.

PERIODIC DISTURBANCES.

Discussion.—A fund of information is gradually accumulating with regard to biochemical changes which occur periodically and manifest themselves by altered physiologic behavior. These cyclic changes are readily apparent in females but not entirely confined to them.

Prior to the onset of the menstrual flow, there is retention of sodium and water sufficient to produce a feeling of fullness or even discomfort in apparently normal individuals. Under more or less normal conditions, there is obvious evidence of edema. "Canker sores" are not infrequent (refer to page 290) and more extensive ulceration is occasionally seen, leading to the diagnosis of Vincent's gingivitis (refer to page 72). Localized edema may reach alarming proportions in the mouth and throat, even necessitating tracheotomy in an effort to save life.

Thiamin, 10-20 mg. twice daily (oral administration), in mild to severe cases; 100 mg. daily in physiological saline intravenously in very severe cases; riboflavin 5-15 mg. daily (oral administration).

According to Cameron (1939) lack of vitamin A is associated with storage of water in various tissues of the body, notably in the leg region in the early stages of deficiency. It has been suggested that vitamin A may be of value in treating patients with water retention of obscure origin.

An extreme drop in the polymorphonuclear neutrophils is associated with ulcerations of the mucous membranes throughout the body. Although most frequent in women, periodic agranulocytosis angina has also been reported in men.

With many individuals there is a definite decrease in the leucocyte count twenty-four to seventy-two hours before the menstrual period or during the first two days. Caution, therefore, should be exercised at this time in administering any drug known to have a depressing effect upon the blood leucocytes. Arsenic, aminopyrine, and dinitrophenol have been conspicuous offenders in this regard. Although spectacular recovery from the angina may be observed on the fourth or fifth day of the menstrual period, some cases persist for two weeks or somewhat longer with only a short interval of freedom from symptoms before the sudden onset of the succeeding attack.

The etiology of periodic neutropenia undoubtedly will be solved in the future through more extensive investigations into the biochemical behavior of the endocrines. With the present state of knowledge, there is one possibility which should not be ignored and that is the effect of emotional upheaval. Particular warning is raised against the strain of adolescent school life when complicated with many social activities since too great a burden may be imposed upon the thyroid and other glands.

Although only a small group of women suffer alarming symptoms periodically, a large percentage are affected by lack of resistance to pustular and other infections. Concurrently, there is diminished tolerance for carbohydrates and increased susceptibility of ketosis. The tendency to water retention with consequent increase in weight (usually 2 to 3 pounds) should be recognized especially whenever a weight reduction schedule is under way.

These observations suggest the advisability of undertaking certain dietary restrictions during the premenstrual period (two to three days usually, although changes may be noted as far as ten days ahead). A high-vitamin, relatively high-protein, moderate-carbohydrate, low-fat, low-salt diet with limited water intake is suggested. Theoretically, vitamin A is particularly indicated because of its possible relation to water retention, to the thyroid gland, and to the mucous membranes of the body. The prescribed diet, however, restricts several items which are excellent sources of this vitamin. The deficit should be made good by deliberate selection of those vegetables and fruits rich in vitamin A (refer to page 59). Possibly the administration of 5000 to 10,000 units daily in concentrated form, such as shark-liver oil, should be begun ten days before the onset of the period. Since the blood cholesterol tends to fall prior to catamenia, an egg a day is recommended. Sodium bicarbonate and all alkaline mineral waters should be avoided because of the enhanced effect on water retention. Generous use should be made

acidifying fruits and their juices (cranberry, plum and prune) acids are dehydrating.

The specification of low-salt intake is to be interpreted liberally. Conditions warrant further restriction. Many items forbidden the salt-poor diet (page 257) are introduced because they are otherwise desirable. The subject should acquire sufficient knowledge regarding the salt content of common foods to make an intelligent selection from those presented. Pot cheese is apt to be the cheese which does not contain an appreciable amount of sodium chloride. Canned foods in general are preserved with generous quantities of salt. Cereals, whether prepared at home or purchased ready-to-eat, reach the table with added salt; from the data presented in Table 71 (page 788) it is apparent that *Shredded Wheat* is comparatively low in sodium chloride. Bakery products rate moderately high for foods which do not taste salty. Tomato juice can be purchased with relatively little or much salt.

<i>Excluded.</i>	<i>Limit.</i>
Eggs	Bread and crackers
Milk	Butter, preferably unsalted
Meat and fish	Chocolate and cocoa
Fruits, raw and cooked	Cream
Vegetables, raw and cooked	Highly sweetened foods
Alcohol	Meat sauces, com.
Alkaline mineral waters	Meat soups
and medication	Prepared bouillon
Candy	Pickles
Tobacco	Potato chips
	Rich pastries
Canned meats or fish	Sausage
Cheese, except pot	Shellfish
All foods which taste salty (those brined, corned, pickled, smoked.)	

Typical Menu.

Evening:

1 T. brewer's yeast in $\frac{1}{2}$ glass of water.

Breakfast:

Fruit (not juice, except where no other beverage is taken)

Egg (minimum salt) or cereal

Toast or roll with $\frac{1}{2}$ pat of butter

Coffee-flavored milk

Luncheon:

Pot cheese, eggs, cold chicken or fresh meat

Fruit or vegetable salad with lemon or vinegar

Or

Hot vegetable plate

Whole grain bread with $\frac{1}{2}$ pat of butter

Prune whip or other simple dessert

Glass of water or tea with lemon

Typical Menu.—(Continued.)*Midafternoon:*

6 oz. water, fruit juice, tea, or carbonated beverage

Dinner:

Meat or fish

Potato and other cooked vegetable

Raw vegetable salad with Melba toast or unsalted cracker

Gelatin dessert or simple pudding

Fruit juice, coffee, or tea

Evening:

Fresh fruit, if desired

Suggestions.—During the time when hormonal activity is rapidly approaching the peak which culminates in the menstrual flow women should obtain additional rest either during the day or at night. They should seek some not-too-strenuous exercise outdoors; walking is ideal. The days should be planned so as to avoid rush, worry or exhausting mental effort. Restriction of the diet to simple, vitamin-rich foods is an approach to the ideal which may well become habitual. Many of the minor afflictions of women can be warded off by such a regimen.

PNEUMONIA

Since the treatment of pneumonia with penicillin and the sulphonamides has so shortened the course of the disease, there is no longer any reason for special dietary considerations. Following the acute phase, however, there is usually some debility. During this phase it is wise to increase the protein in the diet to at least 120 grams. This can best be accomplished by supplementary feedings of egg-nog or plain milk three times daily in addition to extra meat, fish and cheese at meal times. It is well to keep in mind that the time between meal feedings should be had within an hour and a half of the preceding meal. If the supplementary feedings are had within three hours of the next succeeding meal the appetite for this meal is likely to be poor. It is also well to supplement the diet with one of the general vitamin preparations.

POISONING FROM SPRAY RESIDUES.

Discussion.—For the control of insect pests, vegetables and fruit are subjected to sprays the toxic agent of which is usually arsenic in combination with lead, copper, or calcium. When improperly applied and imperfectly removed, these spray residues constitute a definite health hazard. The tolerances for apples and pears shipped within the jurisdiction of the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (1940) have been set at 0.05 grain of lead and 0.02 grain of arsenic (as arsenic trioxide) per pound. The tolerance for fluorine sprays will remain at the level set in 1938, viz., 0.02 grain per pound. The physiologic effect of repeated ingestion of such amounts of arsenic and lead is unknown.

poisoning from arsenic spray residue is not uncommon. In acute gastro-intestinal symptoms predominate. The symptoms associated with chronic poisoning include recurrent, generalized dermatitis with or without brownish pigmentation, pruritis, hyperkeratosis of the palms and soles, alopecia, burning and tingling sensation in the extremities, general weakness, vertigo, disturbances of motion, neuritis, and dyspepsia. Although there is little or no evidence that thiosulfate injections aid in the urinary excretion of arsenic, they are usually employed in cases of suspected poisoning. There is increasing conviction, however, that such procedures are useless.

Foods commonly sprayed are apples, blueberries, broccoli, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, cherries, grapefruit, grapes, oranges, peaches, pears, and plums. Yeast exhibits preferential absorption of arsenic from hops during the manufacture of beer. Wines, cider, and other fruit juices may contain appreciable amounts of arsenic and lead. Canned and foil-wrapped foods are also frequently contaminated with these elements. In a limited series of biologic experiments Mattice (unpublished observations, 1936) found fresh orange juice to yield twice as much arsenic as tap water; canned tomato juice rated slightly higher, whereas canned pineapple juice over three times and canned grapefruit juice over four times as much in arsenic. It occurs regularly as an impurity in commercial rosin, in the shellac coating employed on confectionery, and occasionally in the colored paper used for wrapping candy (Cannon, 1936) although efforts to correct this situation are being made.

It is practically impossible to predict the arsenic content of an individual food. Even products such as meat, milk, eggs, cane sugar, etc., which might reasonably be expected to be free from arsenic may contain small amounts (Boos and Werby, 1935). In general, liver contains more arsenic than other forms of meat. The arsenic content of cod-liver oil should not be ignored (Holmes and Remington, 1934, report 1.4 to 3.3 p.p.m. As in this oil). In certain localities the soil is rich in arsenical minerals or may acquire the element through continuous spraying of gardens and orchards; root vegetables and drinking water may thus be subjected to contamination. Routine tests are not made by health authorities for possible arsenic in drinking water even when the collecting reservoirs draw upon water-sheds which are heavily sprayed (Ayres and Anderson, 1934). Aluminum sulphate used for purification of water may contain arsenic (Cannon, 1936).

Naturally-occurring arsenic reaches its greatest concentration in sea-foods, particularly mollusks and crustaceans. Shrimp heads on the list, over 40 mg. of arsenic trioxide per kg. of fresh material having been reported. Physiologically, such arsenic is treated differently from spray residues both as to storage and elimination (Coulton, 1935) and appears to be much less toxic.

Iron preparations used for medication are never free from arsenic. Epsom salts usually and baking powder frequently contain traces of arsenic and lead. Most salves and ointments are contaminated with arsenic.

Where restriction of arsenic and lead ingestion is indicated, diets are identical except that crustaceans and mollusks are included on a low lead menu. Since blueberries are sprayed with calcium arsenate, they are not likely to be a source of lead poisoning. Foil-wrapped and canned foods, however, are more apt to be a source of lead than arsenic poisoning. From dietary sources the lead averages 0.25 mg. per day. Lead water-pipes may provide an additional 0.1 mg. per diem. Ingestion of such water over a period of several months is frequently attended by symptoms.

Spray Residue Removal.—Surface lead and arsenic compounds may be removed from fruits and vegetables by adequate washing, although this does not necessarily reduce the metallic content to a safe level especially for those who are sensitive to these toxic agents. Spray residues collect on cauliflower principally at the junction of the leaves with the main stalk; since adequate removal is accomplished only by cutting and scrubbing these parts with a brush, the prevailing custom of cooking this vegetable with the head intact is to be discouraged. If the outer three or four layers of cabbage or tightly-headed lettuce are discarded, little residue should be encountered. Lettuce is permissible at all times in an arsenic and lead-low diet provided the individual leaves are scrubbed.

Due to increase in codling moth infestation, heavier sprays than those applied heretofore are being used on apples and pears. Calcium arsenate applied in combination with soap, fish or petroleum emulsions is difficult to remove. As a result of spraying, apple wax may contain lead ursolate. The two major solvents, hydrochloric acid and sodium silicate, are not effective if the spray becomes imbedded in the natural wax of the fruit or in petroleum oil deposits. If the fruit is picked early and cleaned before storing for more than two to three days and if no oil has been employed except very early in the season, 1 per cent hydrochloric acid provides a satisfactory washing medium (Robinson, 1933). The only practical degumming agent for consumer use is kerosene.

Foods may be treated at home in large earthenware containers (metal containers are attacked by the acid) with 1 to 2 gallons of 1 per cent HCl after being carefully washed in running water and drained. Three minutes' submersion is usually ample exposure to the acid. Under average conditions the acid should be renewed twice a week, the container being washed well after discarding the poison-laden acid. Thorough washing (five minutes) in running water is required to remove the acid from the food before it is digested or prepared for cooking.

Where the foregoing procedure is not practical, certain fruits and vegetables can be scrubbed with a brush using borax and running water. Where neither process is feasible, as with berries, running water should be employed with as forcible a stream as possible. Before washing, fruit stems and adherent leaves should be removed. It should not be forgotten that the spray residue collects at the stem and stem ends of fruits in concentrations which are highly toxic.

Diets.—It has been observed by Von Glahn and Flinn

incidence of hepatic cirrhosis in rabbits, produced by the use of lead arsenate, is reduced when powdered brewer's yeast is added to the diet. From this experimental work it may be inferred that the increasingly popular habit of taking a teaspoonful of yeast suspended in water on arising in the morning is to be regarded, not only from the benefit to be derived from the increased vitamin intake, but also for the possibility of securing a measure of protection against spray residue poisoning. It should be remembered, however, that the yeast itself is not arsenic-proof and should be withheld from patients who are being studied with reference to arsenic excretion.

Wenger and Hawkins (1940) found that a high-protein and low-carbohydrate diet was protective against liver damage in the case of administered arsphenamine. Fat, on the other hand, is demonstrably injurious.

A low-calcium diet is believed to act as a preventive of lead poisoning by diminishing absorption from the intestinal tract. Such a diet leads to a decrease in the blood lead content while a low-carbohydrate diet with or without ammonium chloride results in increased blood lead levels. More of this element is stored in the body when the diet is low in calcium than otherwise (Calvery, 1938). It has been pointed out by Manville (1940) that bone meal is used in some baby foods apparently without toxic effects. The richness of bone meal in calcium may account for this behavior although it is possible that the presence of lead is generally not recognized. On diets low in calcium and phosphorus Manville in animal experiments was able to demonstrate a definite protective action of apple against lead poisoning. The active constituent is unknown but it is presumably ascorbic acid; possibly it is an uronic acid.

The various observations should be respected in attempting to select a diet to off-set possible exposure to arsenic or lead. A high intake of ascorbic acid is desirable in lead poisoning.

Apples and milk (New York City) provide a practically arsenic-free diet (Mattice and Harrison, unpublished observation, 1936). For several years, Weisman and Mattice (1936) have employed a diet which has been found experimentally to be arsenic-low.

fresh	Meats
vegetables (potatoes, carrots, onions, beets)	Ice-cream, home-made
fish and pumpkin	Dairy products (milk, cream, eggs, unwrapped cheese)
plant	Bananas
and fresh tomatoes	Melons
s, navy and lima	Rhubarb (cooked with brown or maple sugar*)
washed leaf lettuce	Lemon juice
amber, fresh	Tea and coffee

* Sugar may contain appreciable amounts of lead unless specially processed

Liberalization of this diet is possible in certain instances by use of adequately washed foods otherwise forbidden.

Omit.

Apples	Beer
Apricots	Blackberries
Asparagus	Blueberries
Breadstuffs	Grapes
Broccoli	Ice-cream, commercial
Brussels sprouts	Kale
Cabbage	Liver
Candy	Orange or lemon rind or gratin
Canned foods	Peaches
Cauliflower	Pears
Celery	Peppers
Cherries	Plums
Chili powder	Sea-foods, except whitefish
Chocolate	Soft drinks
Cod-liver oil	Spinach
Collards	Strawberries
Cranberries	Syrups, except pure maple
Currants	Vinegar
Foil-wrapped foods	Watercress
Fruit juices	Wine
Gooseberries	Yeast

Limit.

Cane sugar	Gelatin
Fresh orange juice	Tomato juice

Sample Menu.

Breakfast:

Sliced banana or melon
Farina with cream
Eggs (2), poached
Bacon
Coffee with cream

Luncheon:

Broiled lamb chops
Creamed potato
Squash with butter
Banana mousse
Tea

Dinner:

Cream of fresh pea soup
Chicken fricassee
Mashed potato
Lima beans with butter
Custard
Coffee with cream

estions.—The preceding diet has been experimentally ascertained to contain a minimal amount of arsenic. Probably other vegetables may be employed. Where deprivation of bread is a tip, two slices daily may be permitted. A high-carbohydrate diet is desirable for replenishing the glycogen stores of the liver and protecting this organ against possible arsenic damage. Experimentally, liberal amounts of sugars and syrups in the diet are tolerated by greater excretion of arsenic than is seen on the recommended diet.

PREGNANCY.

Refer to page 410.

PROCTITIS.

Refer to page 504.

PRURITUS ANI.

Refer to page 505.

PSORIASIS.

Refer to page 307.

PYELITIS.

Refer to page 568.

PYLORIC STENOSIS AND PYLORIC SPASM

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Pyloric stenosis and *pyloric spasm* only will be discussed in detail because they occur with considerable frequency in young infants. Onset of symptoms generally occurs after the second week of life but may be present at birth or may not begin until the infant is a month old. The condition occurs most frequently in first born infants. It occurs about three times as frequently in boys as in girls. Obstruction at the pylorus is due to hypertrophy or spasm, or contraction of the circular muscle of the pylorus. The classic symptoms are projectile vomiting that is not bile stained, loss of weight, increasing constipation, visible peristalsis, and a palpable pyloric tumor. The pyloric tumor is not present in pyloric spasm, but all the other symptoms can be found. Pyloric stenosis generally occurs at a younger age than pyloric spasm, but both conditions occur in the first six weeks of life and they cannot always be differentiated on the basis of history, physical examination and stomach x-rays. A therapeutic trial with antispasmodics and changes in formula are necessary to establish the differential between stenosis and spasm. In a patient with severe symptoms, in whom a pyloric

tumor is palpable, a therapeutic trial is not indicated, and surgery is performed as soon as the condition of the infant warrants it.

Since an occasional infant develops the symptoms of pyloric spasm on a whole milk or evaporated milk formula, the first step is to determine whether the construction of the formula is correct. If the formula construction is satisfactory the milk should be changed, *e. g.* from evaporated to whole milk, or vice versa, from homogenized to non-homogenized varieties of milk. If the type of milk is at fault the change to another milk will halt the vomiting immediately. Should the vomiting continue for twenty-four hours after the change in formula, therapeutic tests of antispasmodics should be tried. It must be emphasized, however, that the therapeutic trial of drug and formula change should not be continued unless the vomiting ceases and the child begins to improve immediately.

Atropine and phenobarbital are the drugs of choice in the diagnosis and treatment of pyloric spasm; of these atropine is the more valuable. Because the solutions of atropine are not of constant strength it is advisable to prepare the individual dose each time from the 1/1000 grain tablet. The initial dose is 1/1000 grain (1 tablet of atropine sulfate, dissolved in a teaspoonful of water, given fifteen minutes before each feeding. The dose is increased by $\frac{1}{2}$ tablet before each feeding every twenty-four hours until vomiting ceases or signs of atropine toxicity appear, *i. e.* fever and flushing of the skin. Elixir of phenobarbital ($\frac{1}{4}$ grain to the teaspoonful) may be given if atropine fails to relieve the vomiting but less success is obtained with this drug. The dose of phenobarbital is $\frac{1}{8}$ grain (1 teaspoonful of the elixir) ten minutes before each feeding, increased by $\frac{1}{8}$ grain before each feeding every twenty-four hours until vomiting ceases or the infant becomes drowsy.

Formulas thickened with cereal should be fed to the infant when antispasmodics fail to stop the vomiting. The thickened formula is taken well by the hungry baby and it is difficult to vomit. Infants with pyloric spasm usually stop vomiting as soon as feeding of the thickened formula is begun. Failure of the cereal formula mixture to stop the vomiting within two to three days is suggestive of a diagnosis of pyloric stenosis. The formula is made by adding 6 to 8 tablespoonfuls of a starch cereal, like farina, to the regular formula of the infant. The mixture is brought to a boil over the open flame and then transferred to a double boiler, where it is allowed to cook until the mixture is so thick that it will not fall off an inverted spoon. Then it is divided into 6 equal portions, put into bottles and refrigerated. The feeding may be given by spoon or by cutting the top off the nipple and allowing the infant to suck the thick feeding. It is a common misconception that extra fluids must be given either orally or parenterally to the infant between feedings of the thick cereal formula. In office experience, the hydration of the infant remains satisfactory provided the formula has been prepared with an adequate amount of water. Frequently the mother attempts to speed the thickening process in preparing the formula by reducing drastically the amount of water with which she usually makes the

al formula. If the original formula is made as usual and the is added thereafter, dehydration should not occur on this of feeding. If the thick cereal feeding makes the infant stop ting, it should be continued for one or more months. At vals, liquid feedings may be introduced and when these are ned the cereal may be removed gradually from the formula. e vomiting persists on the thick cereal formula, this method of nment should not be continued beyond seventy-two hours. ration of the stomach contents and gastric lavage with a solution carbonate of soda are generally recommended prior to feeding e infants in an attempt to relieve gastric irritation. This type eatment appears to be unnecessary and has not produced any rnible reduction in the amount of vomiting of patients with e pyloric stenosis or pyloric spasm.

he pre-operative care of patients with pyloric stenosis involves ration of fluid balance by correction of dehydration and res- tion of mineral balance by overcoming alkalosis when present. simplest treatment involves the administration of an intra- ous solution of 5 per cent glucose in saline by continuous drip at te of about 8 to 10 drops per minute in twenty-four hours. If losis is severe, intravenous ammonium chloride may be given. nemia is present, as may be the case in untreated patients, whole od transfusion is indicated. The nursing procedures that are e recommended and which are routine on the Babies Ward of New York Post-Graduate Hospital are as follows:

- . Maintain normal body temperature, using sunlamp if nec- essary.
- . Restrain hands by wrapping in blanket if there is any tendency to suck fingers.
- . Note the type, consistency and times of vomitus—keep an exact record of type and amount of vomiting.
- . Feed infant slowly and carefully.
- . Note stools of infant.
- . Record weight daily.
- . Note any symptom of toxicity of any antispasmodic given, as for atropine:
 - rash
 - temperature
 - flushed face
 - dilated pupils
- . If infant is malnourished wrap with one inch cotton wadding and bandage. Then dress in shirt, diapers and flannel gown. If temperature is not well stabilized send to operating room with hot water bottle, temperature 100°.
- . Aspirate infant's stomach one hour before going to operating room.

The post-operative care of these patients is primarily concerned with the feeding and there is considerable difference of opinion as to when feeding should be begun. When formulas are started too

soon, post-operative vomiting and diarrhea are frequent complications. The routine we have followed for some years on the Baby Ward of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital has given a minimum of vomiting or diarrhea. It begins approximately two hours after the baby has returned from the operating room, later if the baby has not reacted from the anesthetic. Sterile water is given in slowly increasing quantities for the first twenty-four hours. Then after a small amount of dilute formula is begun and this is gradually increased and strengthened according to the tolerance of the infant. This routine is as follows:

1. Feed infant slowly with a small nipple having small holes.
2. To minimize the handling of the infant, feed him in bed for the first five post-operative days—but pick him up for eructation before and after feeding.
3. Measure amounts of formula and water accurately in sterile medicine glass.
4. Pyloric feeding regimen feeding starts two hours following operation, condition permitting.

FEEDING:

Hour	Water	Drams	Hours	Formula	Oz
1st	"	1	22nd	"	1
2nd	"	1	23rd	"	1
3rd	"	1	24th	"	1
4th	"	2	26th	"	1
5th	"	2	28th	"	1
6th	"	2	30th	"	1
7th	"	3	32nd	"	1
8th	"	3	34th	"	1
9th	"	3	36th	"	1
10th	"	4	39th	"	2
11th	"	4	42nd	"	2
12th	"	4	45th	"	2
13th	"	5	48th	"	2
14th	"	5	51st	"	2
15th	"	5	54th	"	2
16th	"	6	57th	"	2
17th	"	6	60th	"	2
18th	"	6	63rd	"	2
19th	"	7	66th	"	2
20th	"	7	69th	"	2
21st	"	7	72nd	"	2
			75th	"	2
			78th	"	2
			81st	"	2
			84th	"	2
			87th	"	2
			90th	"	3
			93rd	"	3

Remainder of formula will be ordered by doctor.

If infant vomits do not increase feeding but go back to previous feeding.

If infant vomits more than one feeding, keep vomiting chart.

Keep vomiting chart on patient until discontinued by doctor.

The post-operative nursing care is also important and our routine follows:

Restrain the infant's hands by wrapping in blanket.

Elevate head of bed very slightly.

Maintain normal body temperature by external heat if necessary.

Watch infant carefully for any aspiration of mucus.

When the infant has been breast fed it is not always possible to obtain the mother's supply of milk though an attempt should be made by pumping her breast regularly and using this breast milk instead of a formula for the infant.

RECTAL CONDITIONS

HAROLD CLARK, M.D.

Pre-operative Diet.—The patient should not be subjected to drastic catharsis nor placed on a starvation or restricted diet several days prior to operation. The day preceding the operation the patient may partake of the usual breakfast and lunch and the ordinary evening meal; increased intake of water and sugar is advised. The same routine is followed when the patient's operation is scheduled for the morning. Should the operation take place in the afternoon, the patient may have a light breakfast consisting of orange juice with sugar, toast and a cup of coffee with milk. A cleansing enema of saline or soapsuds two to three hours preoperatively is sufficient to clear the lower rectum.

Post-operative Diet.—An attempt is made to establish routine diet as soon as possible. A non-residue diet fluid is given the first post-operative day; thereafter the patient is encouraged to partake of a regular diet, with the noted exceptions.

Foods to be *omitted* post-operatively are as follows: All well-known gas-producing foods, *i. e.*, cabbage, onions, turnips; sharp and irritating foods, *i. e.*, peppers, mustard, chili-sauce, foods with vinegar dressings, pickles. Refer to Flatulence-Producing Foods.

Forty-eight hours after operation the patient's bowels are moved by means of 8 ounces of warm olive oil, as a retention oil enema. The patient is instructed to chew all food thoroughly and is allowed the same food as before operation provided the result is a semi-solid stool of soft consistency. Hard and scybalous stools irritate the lower rectum and anus, and thus interfere with the rapid repair of the wound. The generous use of bananas may be helpful in securing the desired consistency. Avoid highly seasoned foods,

spices, ketchup, chili sauce, vinegar, pickles, mustard and salted herring.

For post-operative use the recommended foods are those which will give a well-formed stool.

Advised.

Bread	Green vegetables
Cereals, well cooked	Raw and cooked fruits
Cheese	Oatmeal
Creamed soups	Pastries
Eggs	Pies
Farina	Ripe bananas
Toast	Wheatena

Omit (immediately after operation).

Alcoholic beverages	Raw milk (especially in cases where it is apt to cause diarrhea)
Carbonated beverages	
Pickled and smoked foods	Spices
Peppers	Tomatoes
	Nuts

Limit.

Beans	Cauliflower	Onions
Brussels sprouts	Garlic	Peas
Cabbage	Lentils	Squash

DIET AFTER OPERATION.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Eggs, except fried
Toast or rolls with butter
Coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup
Choice: Potato, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti or vermicelli
Choice: Minced meat or fish, eggs or cottage cheese
Bread with butter
Puréed fruit
Tea

Dinner:

Strained soup
Meat or fish
Potato, baked or mashed
Puréed vegetable
Bread with butter
Simple pudding
Coffee or tea

Suggestions.—Spicy and highly seasoned foods, salted herring, pickles, chili sauce, ketchup, vinegar and mustard should be limited for the first two weeks after operation, as the patient may be

arrassed, especially when the sphincter is inadequate, raw and
y irritated.

ssure-in-ano.—**Discussion.**—Many patients suffering from fis-
-in-ano complain of pain during and after defecation and become
nically constipated through procrastination. The diet, there-
should be one that will secure a soft formed stool. Indigestible
s and careless chewing of the food should be avoided.

he foods permitted and limited are the same as suggested for
ents with hemorrhoids with emphasis on the avoidance of all
y or highly seasoned foods.

Hemorrhoids.—**Discussion.**—The patients complaining of hemor-
ids are in most instances those who have been constipated for a
r time. They also have a tendency to strain at stool. Continual
ining during defecation will cause an engorgement of the hemor-
idal veins with a resultant prolapse of the hemorrhoids. The
t, therefore, should be one that will produce a soft formed, non-
tating stool. Forcing of fluids is indicated. Natural fruit laxa-
e may prove helpful. A rich source of the vitamin-B complex,
h as brewer's yeast taken each morning, is to be recommended.

vised.

Bananas	Salads with olive oil dressings
Bread	Soups, clear
Butter	Vegetables (all kinds, except pota- toes)
Buttermilk	Zoolak and other fermented milks
Eggs	
Fruits, raw or cooked	

nit.

Alcoholic beverages	Cocoa	Milk
Alimentary pastes	Coffee	Spices
Beans	Highly seasoned	Thick or creamed
Cabbage	foods	soups
Cheese		

After hemorrhoidal operations the diet should be one which will
e the patient most comfort, as the perianal and perirectal tissues
very sensitive. The routine post operative diet as outlined
ve is adequate in most instances. Evacuation is aided in forty-
ht hours with the oil retention enema. These patients may have
take 1 or 2 tablespoonfuls of mineral oil upon retiring. Daily
rm sitz baths will aid greatly in healing the local parts.

vised.

Bread with butter	Green vegetables	Molasses
Fish	Honey	Prunes and apricots
Fruit, raw or cooked	Jam	Salads and olive
Fruit juices	Marmalade	oil dressings
Gelatin preparations		

Omit.

Alcoholic drinks	Chili sauce and spices	Pepper
Cayenne pepper	Mustard	Pickles

As soon as healing has become apparent and the sutures have been absorbed, all varieties of food are allowed.

Proctitis.—Discussion.—The diet depends upon the length of time the lesion has been in existence and the etiologic factor of the disease. When bleeding has extended over a length of time, the patient may present a secondary anemia. If the bowel movements are very frequent the patient will have lost weight, and in these cases a diet to increase the weight and strength is necessary. In the early stages of the disease a bland diet is recommended. Refer to list of Bland Foods.

Advised.

Arrowroot pudding	Custards	Lima beans, blanched
Barley	Eggs, soft-boiled,	Meats, including
Breads and crackers	coddled, scrambled or omelet	bacon, well-cooked
Butter	Farina	Potatoes, baked, boiled or mashed
Cheese	Gelatin preparations	Ralston
Cornstarch preparations	Gruels	Rice, boiled
Cream of Wheat		Tapioca

Omit.

Alcoholic beverages	Highly seasoned foods
Carbonated beverages	Olives
Coffee	Raw fruits
Condiments	Vegetables, unless puréed
Fried foods	

Suggestions.—It is common to see patients suffering from frequency of bowel movements varying from 5 to 20 stools a day. Milk may or may not be indicated, depending upon its action on the patient.

When the inflammation is of an acute nature, acidophilus milk and buttermilk should be tried as they have a tendency to change the flora of the intestine.

Patients should have a thorough procto-sigmoidoscopic examination done at frequent intervals to determine the progress of the disease.

Medicated enemata for irrigating the lower intestinal tract are employed together with a dietary regimen.

When the hemoglobin is very low the oral administration of liver extract and iron, together with foods high in copper and manganese, have proved valuable. The following foods are to be recommended: cocoa with cream, peas, molasses, wheat bran, bananas, liver, chicken gizzard, sweetbreads, oysters, and bitter chocolate. With the reduction of tenesmus and abdominal cramps together with the increase in weight and a diminution of bowel mov-

the patient gradually improves and a less restricted diet then be given. Refer to Anemias and Ulcerative Colitis.

Pruritus Ani.—**Discussion.**—Many patients complaining of anal itching indulge in rich, heavy foods. These patients all complain of an itching which may vary in degree and intensity, lasting from fifteen to thirty minutes, located at or near the anal region, and which becomes worse about bedtime. In the early stages, pruritus ani is regarded by many proctologists as a symptom and not a disease entity. An attempt must be made to rule out all ano-rectal pathology before treatment is instituted. Associated lesions such as vaginitis and fungus infection of scrotum and thighs must be treated. Many of these patients manifest allergic reactions particularly on opposing skin surfaces over the body. Because of the complex and frequently undetermined etiology a rigid diet plays a very prominent part in the treatment of pruritus ani.

Excluded.

Eggs.

Fermented and acidophilus

milk

Fish, boiled or broiled

Fruits, raw or cooked

Not

Alcoholic drinks

Sauces

Ketchup

Mustard

Permitted.

Breads

Sauces

Candied fruits

Cheese

Coffee

Creamed foods

Green vegetables

Meats, boiled, roasted or broiled

Water, especially alkaline

Potatoes

Pickles

Pies

Puddings

Shellfish

Spices and highly

seasoned foods

Strawberries

Vinegar

Cornstarch

Doughnuts

Figs

Honey

Jams, marmalades

Nuts

Peppers

Syrups

Tea

Tomatoes

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit

Egg, except fried

Toast or roll with butter

Milk or coffee substitute with milk and sugar

Luncheon and Dinner:

Meat or fish

Cooked vegetables

Salad

Stewed fruit

Milk or buttermilk

Suggestions.—Frequently, fermentation sets up a catarrhal inflammation in the lower bowel, resulting in the formation of flatus and increased secretions which increase the itching.

Constipation and straining at stool may act as a factor in obstructing the venous return flow through the hemorrhoidal veins. Mineral oil on retiring will help greatly to eliminate constipation.

Diabetes should at all times be ruled out by frequent urine and blood-sugar determinations.

Local pathologic lesions of the anus such as fistulae, fissures, infected anal ulcers, cryptitis, ulcerated hemorrhoids with skin tags, etc., should be eliminated by surgery.

RICKETS

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Rickets is a disease of infancy and childhood resulting from deficiency of vitamin D. The vitamin D may be lacking either as a result of an inadequate diet or from lack of exposure of the skin to the ultra violet rays of the sun. It is more common in cold and elevated climates for the sunlight there is deficient in ultra violet rays and the need for clothing prevents these rays from reaching the skin. The average diet of the infant is deficient in vitamin D except for egg yolk, fatty fish, and enriched milk. The infant has a relatively large requirement for vitamin D because of the factor of growth. Nevertheless severe rickets is rare in this country at the present time although mild forms (sub-clinical) are frequent in older children. This mild form, however, may be detected only upon microscopic examination of the bone.

The mineral supply in the diet is a second factor which influences the occurrence of rickets. Lack of calcium, phosphorus or both intensifies the severity of rickets and increases the frequency of the disease. Spontaneous rickets, as it occurs in infants, is usually associated with a deficiency of phosphorus in the diet. A close combination of calcium and phosphorus, such as occurs in cow's milk increases the tendency to rickets. Phosphorus may be present in the diet in a non-absorbable form, phytin (inositol-hexophosphoric acid) which occurs in many cereals. Rickets occurs much less frequently in breast fed infants than in artificially fed infants and is much milder when it occurs, although the content of calcium and phosphorus are much smaller in breast milk than in cow's milk. Obstruction of the bile ducts increases the requirement of the infant for vitamin D by 10 to 12 times.

Rickets is more frequent in highly civilized countries where the diet tends to be artificial. Infants in tropical climates rarely develop rickets because they are exposed to sunlight. Eskimo infants, who receive practically no ultra-violet rays of the sun are protected from rickets by their large intake of vitamin D in the diet (fish liver oil) and by the fact that they are exclusively breast fed.

Symptoms of rickets develop most frequently after the age of two months and the highest incidence is from three to six months of age. The incidence of rickets decreases after six months of age, but mild sub-clinical forms persist throughout

and adolescence in about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the children in this country. It is rarely congenital, this form being found only in infants of a mother with osteomalacia, the adult form of rickets. Premature infants, twins, and triplets are subject to rickets and in more severe forms than are full term infants because rapid growth increases the need for calcium and phosphorus. The premature birth deprives them of the necessary stores of materials. In addition, premature infants may suffer from inability to absorb fats, fat soluble vitamins, and minerals.

Pathology.—The greatest abnormality of growth in rickets is at the cartilage-shaft junction of the long bones. Proliferated cartilage at the end of the bone swells and the cartilage cells degenerate as they approach the zone in which bone formation is occurring. Failure of these cartilage cells to degenerate renders them resistant to invasion by capillary buds with resultant irregular destruction of cartilage cells and irregular formation of osteoid tissue. The columns of cartilage cells also lose their regular parallel growth. Calcium salt deposition decreases and eventually stops entirely.

When healing of the rickets begins, the growth of bone and tissue differentiation return immediately to normal. There is first a deposition of calcium salts in the matrix of the cartilage cells bordering the disturbed zone of growth. The normal cycle of degeneration of cartilage cells begins again, capillary tufts again invade the columns of cartilage cells in regular order and osteoblasts convert the matrix of the cartilage columns into osteoid tissue.

Pathological Chemistry.—Disturbance in the level of calcium and phosphorus of the blood develops. The serum phosphorus decreases to 2.0 to 4.0 mg. per cent in most instances but occasionally the calcium may be decreased. In some cases of rickets both calcium and phosphorus in the blood are decreased. Calcium excretion in the normal infant is predominately in the stool (90 to 95 per cent) while most of the phosphorus excretion is by way of urine. In the rickitic child there is an increase in the amount of phosphorus excreted through the stool and a decrease in the very slight amount of calcium that is normally excreted in the urine while phosphorus excretion also increases in the stool and decreases in urine. Blood phosphatase is increased in rickets up to 20 to 60 Wintsky units. The phosphatase level in the blood returns to normal during the treatment of rickets.

Symptoms.—General symptoms of ill health may be noted at the beginning of rickets in young children, such as restlessness, head sweating, irritability and recurrent attacks of mild diarrhea. The full term infant, however, usually displays no evidence of ill health at the onset of mild rickets. Craniotabes, a softening of the outer table of the skull most frequently in the occipital region and in the vicinity of suture lines, is the first sign of rickets in the small infant. Later, beading of the ribs and enlargement of the wrists become visible. Older infants develop bossing of the frontal bones, rickitic rosary, enlargement of the wrists, enlarged persist-

ently open fontanelles. Muscles become flabby and weak and child is delayed in sitting, standing, and walking. Toward the end of the first year, craniotabes disappears, but other deformities become apparent, the head tends to be square, dentition is defective, pigeon breast, pot belly, Harrison's groove appear. Further deformities of bones, such as spinal and pelvic deformities, bow legs, knock knees, saber shins, and flat feet, depend upon the nature of the stress put upon the bones by the pull of muscles, the effect of gravity, and the posture of the child at the time of the rickets.

Treatment.—Vitamin D with or without ultra-violet light therapy is generally used to prevent and to cure rickets. Doses of vitamin D capable of preventing rickets (400 I.U.) will also cure rickets, but very slowly. This quantity of vitamin D is contained in 1 teaspoonful of plain cod liver oil and in 1 quart of most vitamin D milk. The average case of rickets requires 1200 I.U. of vitamin D per day and the cure is fairly well advanced on this dosage by the end of three weeks. Many patients, however, require considerably larger doses of vitamin D and these patients must have the quantity of vitamin D increased gradually until signs of healing of the rickets appear. The dosage of vitamin D may have to be increased to as high as 50,000 I.U. daily and in rare instances of vitamin D resistant rickets as much as 500,000 to 1,000,000 I.U. daily may be used.

If tetany is present as a symptom of rickets it is generally advisable to administer calcium salts orally for two days before beginning treatment of the rickets with vitamin D. When vitamin D is given first in these patients there is a slight chance that the calcium in the blood will be further reduced by the action of the vitamin D and the tetany increased. Calcium chloride may be given in amounts of 3 to 4 grams as the initial dose followed by 1 gram three times daily for a week. The solution of calcium chloride should not exceed 5 per cent in strength since more concentrated solutions produce intense gastric irritation and occasional gastric hemorrhage.

Rickets may also be cured by the administration of a single large dose of vitamin D orally. The dosage advocated is a minimum of 600,000 I.U.

Rickets may also be cured without the use of vitamin D or ultra-violet light. A mixture of citric acid and sodium citrate has been found to be curative of rickets in exactly the same fashion as vitamin D, and produces very rapid healing. The dosage recommended is 40 ml. of molar citric acid and 20 ml. of molar sodium citrate daily.

SCURVY.

Discussion.—The story of scurvy is one which is closely associated with the sea and dates as far back as the institution of writing. Infantile scurvy (Barlow's disease) was described by Barlow in 1883, at which time he differentiated scurvy from acute rickets.

It is a disorder of nutrition, due primarily to the lack of vitamin C caused by a deficiency in fresh fruits and green vegetables. In view of the fact that it takes approximately six months of relatively or complete vitamin C deficiency before symptoms are produced.

requently scurvy in its incipient stages remains undiagnosed. This is particularly true where fresh fruits and green vegetables are available, but, due to distaste on the part of the patient, have not been incorporated into the diet. In this way, it is possible to observe that many people are suffering from what might be called *clinical scurvy*.

See also Vitamin C (page 79) for further discussion and for details of this vitamin.

SCURVY, INFANTILE

VINCENT LARKIN, M.D.

Infantile scurvy is a deficiency disease which results from lack of vitamin C. It occurs more frequently in artificially fed infants than in breast fed infants because of the smaller amount of vitamin C in cow's milk. It is less frequent in rural areas than in large cities because there is a shorter time between production and consumption of the milk in rural areas, with a decreased loss of vitamin C in the process.

Pathology.—Deficiency of vitamin C is generally accepted as being the cause for the symptoms of scurvy. However, other factors may play a rôle which is at present not completely understood. The requirement for vitamin C is not known with exactness. According to Stefansson, primitive people subsist on diets containing such small amounts of vitamin C that theoretically they should have scurvy, but in fact they are actually in robust health. Diets which are deficient in vitamin C cause a decrease in the body stores of vitamin C during the first two weeks, but there is a transient rise in the body stores of vitamin C during the second 2 weeks, although the diet contains no vitamin C. Also, some cases of scurvy do not respond to ascorbic acid therapy, but improve immediately when given orange juice or lemon juice, a fact which suggests that some unknown factor is necessary for the utilization of vitamin C.

Incidence.—Scurvy is more frequent in infants than in adults because infants receive more restricted diets. In many instances infants have been given no food containing supplementary vitamin C for a period of months. Most of the cases occur between the ages of eight and thirteen months but may occur before or after these ages. The disease is rare in children over eighteen months of age. Infants who are breast fed exclusively rarely develop scurvy because the breast is able to concentrate vitamin C in the milk even when the maternal supply is low. Even in children with debilitating chronic diseases, scurvy rarely occurs because most of these infants are given concentrated vitamin supplements which contain adequate amounts of vitamin C. Only gross neglect of the diet causes scurvy in this country at the present time. The disease has become almost non-existent in this country because of modern feeding habits.

Pathology.—Hemorrhage results from the decreased capillary resistance and the permeability of the capillary walls which occurs

in the prolonged absence of vitamin C. There is no specific deficiency in the clotting mechanism but rather an extravasation of blood through the capillary walls. The hemorrhagic lesions range from petechiae to extensive ecchymosis. In the skin, the hemorrhage occurs about the hair follicles, sweat glands, skin lesions, bony prominences and other points of pressure. Hemorrhages also occur in the internal organs. Skeletal lesions also occur and are most common at the costo-chondral junctions, the distal ends of the femor, the proximal ends of the tibias and femors and the wrists. In the bones there is normal calcification at the zone of provisional calcification but capillary buds do not invade this zone as they normally should and there is failure of conversion of this provisional calcified osteoid tissue to bone. Blood calcium and phosphorus remain normal but blood phosphatase is greatly decreased.

Symptoms.—The symptoms of early scurvy are anorexia, irritability, failure to gain in weight, and occasionally recurrent diarrhea. As the disease progresses hemorrhages become visible. The infant cries constantly, lies motionless and screams when he is lifted. In the order of frequency the most common symptoms are pain in the lower extremities, particularly when the patient is diapered, resulting in refusal to stand; changes in the gums, particularly where teeth are erupting; hemorrhages of the skin; and fever. Musculature is flabby and weak. X-rays of the long bones show increased density at the ends of the long bones with a ground glass appearance of the bone. Sub-periosteal hemorrhages may be present.

Therapy.—Scurvy may be cured by the oral administration of orange or lemon juice; 4 ounces of orange juice (containing 100 milligrams of ascorbic acid) taken daily produces a remission of symptoms within a few days. Healing is complete over a two week period. If the disease is very severe ascorbic acid may be given orally, intravenously, or intramuscularly. Doses larger than 100 milligrams daily are rarely required in the treatment of scurvy.

SEBORRHEA.

Refer to page 308.

SPRUE (THRUSH).

Discussion.—Sprue or psilosis is a disease found most frequently in the tropics and sporadically throughout the rest of the world. It is characterized by a sore mouth and tongue, severe diarrhea and secondary anemia. The etiology is unknown: most authorities, however, classify it as a food deficiency.

Formerly, various diets have been tried with a fair measure of success in the treatment of sprue. Milk, so much as 3 quarts in twenty-four hours, at two-hour intervals, has been used with varying degree of response. This regimen can be met by the prescription of a modified Sippy diet. Refer elsewhere for details. Frequent feedings of large amounts of meat very slightly cooked

o been tried. Some observers have found that fresh straw-
 ive marked relief. However, permanent cure has been very
 ler these conditions and recurrences frequent and severe.
 ecently the use of liver in the treatment of this disease has
 ry successful. When large amounts of liver by mouth are
 etive, liver extract given intravenously and intramuscularly
 duced excellent results. Remission is brought about quickly
 e continuous use of the liver extract, patients continuing
 health for long periods of time. Refer to Pernicious Anemia
 ndary Anemia for modes of liver administration.

STENOSIS, ESOPHAGEAL.

ussion.—The type of diet for this condition varies directly
 he degree of obstruction present. The common division
 s itself into a fluid or semi-fluid diet. One or the other of
 wo diets is indicated irrespective of the determined etiology.
 following diets are arranged for both the liquid and semi-
 types, yielding sufficient caloric value to be above minimal
 maintenance.

Liquid Diet.

Typical Menu.

fast:

uit juice
 uel with cream and sugar
 ffee with cream and sugar *or* cocoa

M.

gnog, buttermilk *or* milk

heon:

eam of vegetable soup *or* strained soup
 stard, junket *or* ice-cream

uit juice with beaten egg

er:

eam of vegetable soup *or* strained soup
 in custard, sherbet *or* fruit-ice

t milk *or* cocoa

Soft (Semi-liquid) Diet.

Typical Menu.

kfast:

uit juice *or* puréed fruit
 rained cereal with cream and sugar
 g, soft-cooked
 ffee with cream and sugar *or* cocoa

Soft (Semi-liquid) Diet.—(*Continued.*)*Midmorning:*

Buttermilk, milk, eggnog

Luncheon:

Minced meat in cream

Puréed vegetable

Soft dessert

Milk

Midafternoon:

Fruit or vegetable with beaten egg

Dinner:

Minced meat in broth

Mashed potato

Puréed vegetable

Soft dessert

Milk

Bedtime:

Hot milk or cocoa

Suggestions.—In view of the fact that there is a limited volume of intake, water may be entirely omitted and the requisite liquid obtained from those fluids with caloric value, such as milk and its modifications. Refer to Fluid Foods, Soft Foods and Supplemental Methods of Feeding.

STERILITY.

Refer to page 410.

STOMATITIS, ACUTE.

Discussion.—In the early stages of acute stomatitis or severe affections of the oral cavity, the following fluids are recommended: albumen water, barley water, bouillon, broths, buttermilk, consommé, cracked ice, ice-cream, Kaffee Hag, milk, orange albumen, Postum, rice water, Sanka, soups, gruels, weak coffee and tea. Refer to Fluid Foods.

The administration of these foods should be very frequent and limited in quantity. Either lukewarm or ice-cold foods are well tolerated. In the event that one is not borne so well as the other, further restriction of the noted items can be instituted.

At a later period the diet may be augmented by the following foods: apple sauce, baked apple, minced chicken, custard, shredded fish, junket, mashed potatoes, poached eggs, puréed or strained vegetables, sherbets, soft-boiled eggs, toast. Refer to Soft Foods.

Some physicians object to the feeding of milk or milk products in cases of stomatitis. However, the few detrimental effects observed are relatively negligible and insufficient to warrant milk deprivation. Reference should be made to the liquid diets suggested in Esophageal Stenosis and Febrile Conditions, for further menu suggestions. Refer also to Oral Conditions and Diseases.

SURGERY IN DIABETES.

EDWARD C. BRENNER, M.D.

ussion.—According to conservative estimates there are over 1000 diabetics in this country. What proportion of these, in the course of their disease, will require surgical treatment is impossible to foretell. However, we may evaluate the frequencies and magnitude of their surgical pathologies when it is recalled that 2 to 15 per cent of all diabetics who enter hospitals are admitted with surgical complications.

For clinical reasons these patients may be divided into two groups: (a) those of *election*, in whom the surgical pathology is in no wise related to the preëxisting diabetes; (b) those of *necessity*, in whom surgical complications are directly or indirectly resultant upon persistent hyperglycemia.

Cases of Election.

Prior to the advent of insulin therapy (1921) the conservative surgeon held aloof from operating upon such patients unless the pathology was of acute or disabling severity. Patients suffering from diseased gall-bladders and appendices, intractable chronic gastric and duodenal ulcers, herniæ, pelvic pathologies, etc., were refused against operation. In the best hospitals the mortalities following diabetic surgery were from 20 to 40 per cent. Fortunately, this no longer obtains and the general practitioner should know and peradventure of doubt that, *in the absence of infection*, the surgical risk in skilled hands, with proper medical care before and after operation, is no greater for the diabetic than it is for the non-diabetic patient of the same age and general physical condition.

Surgical cases of election may be managed as follows: (1) Determine the practicability of relieving the hyperglycemia, with or without acidosis, by diet and insulin. (See Diabetes.) It should be remembered that in the absence of acute infection the sugar tolerance is not influenced by operation. (2) Appraise the patient's general constitution. If surgery is indicated and the diabetes is kept under control, a constitutionally competent patient may be given about the same prognosis as the non-diabetic. Wounds heal in the same time and the surgical convalescence is not prolonged.

However, certain precautions should be taken. A few days before operation the carbohydrate intake should be increased, and, if necessary, the insulin as well, so that the glycogen storage in the liver may be at its maximum.

The question of *anesthetic* is important. Chloroform should not be used. Ether is also contraindicated as it increases the blood sugar and produces acidosis through diminution of normal metabolism. Moreover, the urinary output is decreased and the excretion of acetone bodies diminished. The frequent vomiting aggravates the acidosis. The effect of insulin upon carbohydrate

metabolism is largely neutralized when the organism is saturated with ether. Novocaine-block anesthesia holds first choice. In abdominal and pelvic surgery most surgeons favor spinal anesthesia with pre-operative selection of morphine and atropine. In lower extremity pathologies, either spinal anesthesia or refrigeration of the part is the method of choice.

For general anesthesia nitrous oxide and oxygen or ethylene is preferred. A preliminary hypodermic of morphine, $\frac{1}{6}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ grain with atropine, $\frac{1}{200}$ to $\frac{1}{150}$ grain, is a decided adjuvant. To attain further relaxation curare may be employed.

Post-operatively in non-diabetics it is a frequent custom following laparotomy to administer glucose solution by rectum. In diabetic patients this procedure is too indefinite. Excellent results are obtained by giving definite dosage of glucose by intravenous infusion. Three to 5 per cent glucose in normal saline is *slowly* infused into the vein (usually at the elbow), using 1 unit of insulin to 5 grams of glucose. Needless to say, the solution must be kept warm during the entire infusion. Not more than 50 grams are given at a time. The usual procedure is to administer 500 to 1000 cc. of 5 per cent glucose in sterile normal saline with the proper units of insulin added thereto, every four to six hours, as indicated. In cases of kidney insufficiency the saline is omitted and the glucose is given in sterile water.

Chronic cholecystitis with or without stones deserves special mention. The question of chronic cholecystitis in the production of chronic pancreatitis and possible resultant diabetes is not germane to this discussion of therapy. However, it has been definitely proved that infections lower the diabetic's sugar tolerance and gall bladder infection is no exception. Striking improvement in the diabetes occasionally follows cholecystectomy.

Most cases of gall-bladder disease occur in overweight, middle-aged individuals, the same class in which mild diabetes is so common. These cases are favorably influenced by operation, perhaps largely through the removal of a focus of constant infection. In general it may be stated that the indications for gall-bladder surgery are the same in the diabetic as in the non-diabetic. With proper pre-operative medical care, the operation is safe and the subsequent effect upon the diabetes often favorable.

Herniæ in diabetes present a different problem. There is no infective element and the problem is chiefly one of the patient's discomfort. Several factors other than the diabetes must be considered: the age of the individual, the occupation, the type and size of the hernia, especially whether reducible or irreducible, also any tendency toward inflammation or irreducibility, digestive disturbances and, last but not least, the general musculature.

Patients past middle-life with reducible herniæ are best treated with a properly fitted truss. This should be applied before rising in the morning. Needless to say, a truss should never be worn over an irreducible hernia. Patients whose occupations entail a marked increase of intra-abdominal pressure should not be operated upon. In these the danger of recurrence is large. Those with very

musculature, especially the obese with large direct herniæ, poor candidates for permanent cures. The group of middle-aged patients (the majority) with irreducible herniæ, especially concomitant digestive disturbances, are best operated upon with novocaine-block anesthesia. Those more advanced in years become surgical if definite obstruction occurs. Strangulation by age knows no mercy but the scalpel.

Appendicitis is a common problem in the diabetic. A word of warning should be emphasized. A diabetic with his sensorium clouded by acidosis often tolerates pain and inflammation with little complaint. The writer has had 2 such cases go on to abscess formation who had refused operation because they had hardly any pain. On the other hand, two other conditions may occur in a diabetic which may simulate an acute abdominal condition. One is the abdominal discomfort, sometimes severe pain, of a hypoglycemic reaction; the other, severe abdominal pain with vomiting and diffuse abdominal tenderness, which may occur in the early stage of diabetic acidosis. A pre-operative urinalysis should always be done.

The acute appendix is not to be temporized with unless it is definitely subsiding when seen. If rupture and diffuse peritonitis ensue the mortality is much higher than in the non-diabetic. The milder treatment for peritonitis is contraindicated as statistics reveal a prohibitive mortality. In peritonitis cases, if one waits to control the hyperglycemia and acidosis, these may be improved but the patient will succumb. With sugar in the peritoneal cavity, bacteria grow with astounding prodigality. Furthermore, the value of insulin is decreased more than 50 per cent in the presence of infection. When drainage is established the efficacy of insulin returns.

Gastric and duodenal ulcers in the diabetic and the non-diabetic should be given a prolonged course of medical treatment. The surgical indications are in general the same as in non-diabetics with the reservations enumerated in the paragraph of cases of election.

Gynecology in Diabetics.—Infection of Bartholin's glands, Skene's glands and of patients with endo cervicitis lower the diabetic's sugar tolerance and should be cured by appropriate palliative measures. Surgery should not be advised in patients with cystocele advanced and the patient only mildly diabetic. Cases of extensive cervical laceration with concomitant infection are perhaps best treated by endo thermic conization.

Fibroids not larger than a grapefruit and producing symptoms of menorrhagia or pressure, in which there is no adenexal inflammation, respond well to radium. Larger growths may require hysterectomy. Malignancies of the cervix or body of the uterus should receive the same therapy as in non-diabetics.

Cysto-salpinx and tubo-ovarian abscess present relatively the same problems as in the normal patient. The infective element will influence the power of insulin to control the carbohydrate metabolism. Chemotherapy is usually effective.

Hyperthyroidism.—About 1 per cent of the cases of hyperthyroid

ism are complicated by diabetes. Whether hyperthyroidism and diabetes is a moot question. The hyperthyroidism accentuates the diabetes, increases the danger of acidosis and renders treatment less effective. Iodine therapy, usually given as Lugol's solution, helps the hyperthyroidism and, indirectly, the diabetes. Roentgen therapy is a valuable adjuvant. If rest, sedatives, iodine and radiation fail to control the hyperthyroidism, surgery is indicated. In many cases the diabetes is ameliorated in a manner similar to that obtained in removing an infection of considerable magnitude.

Cases of Necessity.

Furunculosis.—Diabetics are especially prone to furuncles. The dry skin, predisposes to the invasion of hair follicles by surface bacteria. These apparently trivial surface infections require immediate surgical treatment as they may progress to deeper infections of serious magnitude. Small superficial furuncles and boils may be painlessly treated as follows: The skin for about 1 cm. surrounding the infection is painted lightly with tincture of iodine and swabbed off with 95 per cent alcohol. A droplet of pure carbolic acid is applied to the dome of the furuncle. This produces sufficient anesthesia to make painless a small crucial incision through which the pus is evacuated. *Do not squeeze the boil.* This pernicious practice leads to the formation of secondary furuncles. The hair zone about the follicle infection is Nature's protective barrier of leukocytes. Squeezing may break down this first line of defense. When the pus is evacuated it should be swabbed off with 95 per cent alcohol. A wet dressing of Dakin's solution or 5 per cent alcohol or 1 to 500 potassium permanganate should be applied for twenty-four hours. Over the wet dressing a hot-water bottle or electric pad often adds relief. The antiseptic wet dressing prevents infection of the neighboring hair follicles. The writer prefers to open boils with the endotherm needle and sterilize the contents by coagulation. The results are excellent in both boils and furuncles, skilfully performed. Chemotherapy should be instituted promptly.

Most boils are incised under 1 to 2 per cent novocaine anesthesia. The object of the anesthesia is to produce a novocaine block *about* and *not into* the boil. After the area has been painted with tincture of iodine, mercurochrome, etc., the first insertion of the hypodermic needle may be rendered painless by applying a small droplet of pure carbolic acid to the site of puncture. Once the tip of the hypodermic needle enters the skin, the solution should be injected in advance of the needle. Under no condition insert the needle into the boil as its withdrawal may infect the surrounding tissue. The anesthetic should be injected circumferentially about the boil. Attention to these details will render what is often a very painful procedure quite tolerable. Larger boils and especially those in the axilla are best incised under gas or gas-oxygen anesthesia. In all cases the incision must be radical enough to obtain adequate drainage. It must always be remembered that infection has a harmful effect upon diabetes and demands prompt treatment.

less of acidosis. Treat the infection first, then the diabetes. To prevent recurrent furunculosis scrupulous cleanliness of the must be maintained and the hyperglycemia controlled. Some a larger carbohydrate intake, compensated by increased dosage, is advantageous. Vaccines, either stock or autogenous, are sometimes efficacious. It should be remembered that patient with recurrent furunculosis, even in the absence of uria, should have a blood sugar done, as many such cases are arising from a low-grade hyperglycemia.

abscesses and cellulitis demand immediate attention. In patients with acidosis, these should be sought for on the back and buttocks. Often their threshold of pain sense is greatly lowered.

Trophic leg ulcers are commonly found in those of advanced age, especially with arteriosclerosis. Usually the skin surrounding the ulcer is mildly infected. Excellent results are obtained by placing the patient in bed, elevating the affected extremity on pillows and applying a continuous wet dressing of normal saline, boric acid solution or dichloramine-T. Lead and opium solution is favored by some.

With proper carbohydrate balance, the infection usually subsides quickly, and once the ulcer becomes free of infection its healing follows the application about its borders of stimulants such as 1 per cent scarlet red ointment, balsam of Peru, etc. Occasionally the granulating ulcers require Thiersch or pinch grafts.

Another type of ulcer, less common, is the perforating one. This resembles that of tabes dorsalis and usually is accompanied by sensory involvement, producing areas of anesthesia. These ulcers are very sluggish and often involve the deeper parts, producing osteomyelitis. For the ulcer *per se* the best treatment is excision and suture of the soft parts.

Carbuncles.—These require immediate surgical treatment. The technique varies among different surgeons, but all agree upon the cardinal principle of a radical incision to obtain adequate drainage. Many operators make a large crucial skin incision under gas-oxygen anesthesia and completely excise the contents, preserving all skin which is healthy. The cavity left is packed with gauze and Dakin's solution until clean. Recently at the Post-Graduate Hospital, New York, the writer has attempted sterilization of the multiple abscesses by electric coagulation with several excellent results. This treatment is relatively painless and no anesthetic is necessary. Those requiring exsection of the infected zone were treated with the endon knife and better results were thought to obtain. Chemotherapy is a powerful adjuvant.

Diabetic gangrene occurs most frequently in patients who have suffered from a mild diabetes for many years. It is uncommon in young individuals and is seen in those past fifty years of age who have a concomitant arteriosclerosis. Many cases of so-called diabetic gangrene are really those of senile or arteriosclerotic gangrene. Usually, we classify the dry gangrene as arteriosclerotic and the wet gangrene as diabetic.

Prophylaxis. Gangrene usually affects the lower extremities beginning in the toes, sole of the foot or on the heel. The first sign of impending danger is often a paresthesia or a trophic disturbance. This is a warning of imminent trouble. If in the early stages the feet should be kept scrupulously clean by daily prolonged warm water bathing, the nails carefully cut and any corns or bunions kept soft with lanolin. Wool socks should be worn with properly fitting shoes. Caustics and strong antiseptics should be avoided. Infrared rays are helpful. Often the first lesion is a small blister. In these cases the patient should be ordered to bed at once and kept there, the part elevated and kept continuously warm. If the blister persists, its contents should be evacuated and a mild antiseptic dressing of Dakin's solution or dichloramine-T applied.

If actual gangrene develops and the parts remain dry, and there is no redness of the surrounding skin and no signs of lymphangitis expectant treatment may be maintained. The dorsalis pedis, popliteal and femoral arteries are carefully palpated for pulsation and compared with the opposite leg. The acidosis and hypoglycemia should be rigidly controlled. Occasionally and in dry types only, Nature will indicate its line of demarcation and the site for amputation. However, in the moist (most common) type of gangrene, in which there is redness of the surrounding skin and a beginning lymphangitis, immediate surgery is imperative. Teporization with these cases usually results in death from septicemia or bronchopneumonia.

In wet gangrene of the toes or sole of the foot it seems radical to perform amputation above the knee, but those with early high amputation have a mortality correspondingly low. The lymphatics are infected higher in the leg than the lesion would indicate and an upper calf amputation usually ends in an infected wound and is fraught with grave danger. A mid-thigh amputation performed promptly produces the best results. In cases where there is extensive lymphangitis the stump should be left wide open. A blood culture should be taken in all cases.

Whereas coma was the principal cause of death in the diabetic before the advent of insulin it has taken second place to diabetic gangrene and its sequelæ. This mortality should be materially reduced by insistence upon unremitting prophylaxis and prompt high amputations in cases of wet gangrene with lymphangitis. Refer to Diabetes Mellitus for specific dietary management.

SURGICAL CONDITIONS

R. FRANKLIN CARTER, M.D.

Discussion.—The tendency of surgeons today is to maintain during the surgical period the daily required ingestion of food to the patient at a level as nearly normal as possible. The normal intake of food by mouth is necessarily interrupted during the operative period in every major surgical procedure. Preparations

A patient for this interruption is carried on by the routine giving of extra carbohydrate and the normal amount of protein several days prior to operation. Hard candy in addition to the normal intake of ordinary carbohydrates, extra starches and sugars with the diet, is used for this purpose. For maintenance of the protein, jello, cheese, skimmed milk, and, in some instances, specially prepared proteins, are added to the dietary. In cases which do not require special preparation, the patient should be specifically instructed to eat the usual amount of food up to the day of operation. The old custom of starving before being operated upon is still prevalent and may be encountered in any and all types of patients. During the operative period (this includes the day of operation and two days following), the intake of carbohydrates should be carefully maintained. To maintain the carbohydrate balance, 5 per cent glucose in normal saline is administered intravenously until there is a re-establishment of the normal intake of these substances through the usual channels. The addition of specially prepared protein by oral and intravenous administration is indicated in the average case. Resort to this type of intravenous protein feeding is indicated, however, and very helpful in those patients having had loss of weight, long periods of starvation or after having undergone chronic illness, or for any other reason having a low serum protein.

Whenever it becomes necessary to continue intravenous glucose and salt administration, vitamin B₁ should be furnished to the patient. In general, the use of highly refined carbohydrates is undesirable for any great length of time unless accompanied by an adequate supply of vitamin B complex.

Following operation, the normal intake of carbohydrates and proteins together with fluids, equal to or above the normal, should be resumed by mouth within forty-eight hours, except where specifically contra-indicated by the type of operation.

Since surgical procedures lower the plasma vitamin C concentration 30 to 50 per cent, the addition of 200 to 500 mg. of ascorbic acid to the diet is recommended daily prior to and after operation. Although there is no substantial proof that vitamin C deficiency occurs in non-union of wounds, the evidence is such that this vitamin should be employed after major procedures in debilitated patients when early rising after operation is practiced.

Wherever circumstances permit, and especially for patients with major surgical procedures ahead, a chemical blood analysis should be made for determination of the carbon dioxide combining power, sodium, chlorides and urea, also a blood count from which the nutritional state of the patient will be determined and adequate measures instituted for the preparation and care during the operative period.

The preliminary use of cathartics very much interferes with carbohydrate and water reserve, and should be omitted unless special preparation is required. Some surgeons advise the patient to use an additional amount of salt in their food for several days prior to

operation. In those patients taking little fluid this practice is useful. This salt intake can be augmented by the administration of single O capsules which can be packed with ordinary table salt. Two of these capsules three times daily should be given.

The natural vehicle for the introduction of carbohydrates is water, which is required for purposes of metabolism just as much as carbohydrates. Therefore, the soluble carbohydrates should be administered along with tea, orange and lemon phosphate drinks by mouth; intravenously in glucose, 5 per cent, intravenously as per glucose in 10 to 15 per cent solution made up in normal saline or sterile water solution when glucose is especially required in large quantities. The average daily intake should be maintained and not exceeded, especially in the amount of fluid.

Diets in Specific Conditions

Anemias.—The preliminary preparation of anemic patients should be by diet and the usual medical measures whenever the nature of the case will permit operative delay for this purpose. For the relief of anemia, blood transfusion is considered transitory and not satisfactory as a natural increase in the patient's own blood elements. Medical methods should not be used for patients with cancer or those with a hemoglobin below 60 per cent, but blood transfusion should be employed.

The secondary anemia encountered in young women accompanied by undernourishment, low blood-pressure, etc., should be treated by high-calorie, iron, copper and manganese diets, with liver or liver extracts, judicious exposures to sunlight, injections of iron and enforced rest for a month to six weeks prior to all elective operation for pelvic disorders, herniæ and chronic abdominal conditions. For acute cases of this type, a post-operative regimen of the same sort is very essential, and it should never be neglected in order that the patient may fully recover and receive the full benefit from the instituted surgical procedure.

For patients with secondary anemia of a severe grade, with hemoglobin below 40 per cent from bleeding hemorrhoids, menorrhagia or bleeding ulcer of the stomach or duodenum, preliminary blood transfusions of whole blood, sufficient to raise the hemoglobin to above 60 per cent should be employed immediately prior to the operation. Following the operation the high-calorie high protein diet with blood-producing agents, iron injections and enforced rest will suffice.

The severe degree of secondary anemia that stimulates the pernicious type which is encountered in patients with carcinoma and especially when the cardia of the stomach or the ascending colon is the seat of the disease, should be relieved by large transfusions of whole blood both before and after operation. This may then be followed by the usual dietetic and other methods of stimulating the hematopoietic system.

Nephritis.—In the presence of nephritis, a special dietary regimen should be instituted prior to operation in all patients having chronic

diverse surgical conditions. Specific diets for the various types of nephritis should be instituted and carried on until the effects of the disease have been eliminated insofar as it is possible before operation is attempted. Refer to Nephritis-Bright's Disease. Prior to operation the attention to and provision for an adequate carbohydrate, protein and fluid reserve is especially indicated, as these patients have more than the usual amount of toxins to elimi-

nephritis that accompanies severe thyrotoxicosis is of especial importance to the surgeon. Preliminary preparation by blood transfusion and correction of high nitrogen retention prior to operation should be attempted wherever the condition of the patient permits, wherever improvement takes place in the presence of a decline in thyrotoxicosis. However, in the face of a severe case which has been prepared for operation, the operation should not be delayed because of an accompanying nephritis, rather the anesthetic choice should be made with a view toward conserving the kidney function insofar as possible.

The accompanying nitrogen retention of conditions of intestinal obstruction, obstruction of the common bile duct and in acute infections, is important, and it should receive prompt and adequate attention. Operations for the relief of these conditions cannot be attempted because of nitrogen retention, albumin or casts in the urine. In a renal picture, especially that accompanying acute infection, which is largely transitory, and the proper attention to water, sugar and caloric intake is usually all that will be necessary. A noted exception is that type of nephrosis and nephritis which follows the severe infections of childhood and pregnancy. Whenever they are encountered all operations of an elective nature should be deferred until the renal involvement treated rigorously along the usual lines has run down under that topic. Also all acute operative conditions encountered following the acute infections of childhood and pregnancy should be accompanied by careful analyses of renal function and unusual attention to diet.

Obesity.—Obese patients are frequently misleading in their caloric requirements. They may be oversupplied with a reserve of fat and still have a small carbohydrate reserve, with which a formidable post-operative acidosis, vomiting, general discomfort and more serious complications may ensue. The preliminary excessing of carbohydrates is essential in all obese individuals, especially in obese patients with large abdominal herniae and acute gall bladder disease, the dietary intake before and during operation should be controlled. Prior to operation the patient should be put on a diet low in fats, and in a case of a large abdominal hernia loss of weight can be attained by a period of strenuous dieting for two months or more before operation. During this time the carbohydrate and fluid intake should be retained at normal or brought to normal for several days prior to operation. Refer to Obesity.

Underweight.—The most frequent misleading factor in thin individuals is the fluid balance. These patients are almost always

dehydrated, and the preliminary administration of fluid with protein and carbohydrate is essential. Generally, during the operative period metabolic difficulties are met with less frequently in thin individuals than in the obese. Probably this is true because in the thin individual the necessity for adequate preparation is more apparent than in the obese.

It is rarely necessary to defer operation to put weight on a patient, and it will never be necessary except when the underweight is accompanied by anemia and asthenia. The patient who has been accustomed to a full diet but has not gained, and seems to be below the normal or accustomed weight, need not be over-fed for several periods prior to surgery. Following operation a high-calorie diet and other measures to increase the weight is of great assistance in insuring a satisfactory end-result. Basal metabolic determinations may reveal valuable information.

Infants.—The careful administration of food up to the operative day and an early resumption of feeding are important, because of the rapidity with which the conditions of acidosis and alkalosis appear in early life.

The Aged.—A slowing-up of metabolism in old patients makes them less able to detoxify deleterious substances when called upon to do so during acute infections. Therefore, an adequate supply of carbohydrate, fluid and protein is more often necessary.

Gastro-Intestinal Cases

Gastric.—Three days prior to operation, all alkalies should be omitted, carbohydrates added to the diet and the usual starches with an excess of sugar and fluid taken. For twenty-four hours preceding operation the stomach should be given rest periods which will insure its being empty for five hours prior to operation; during this period nothing should be taken by mouth, not even water, and preliminary gastric lavage should be routine practice, leaving the tube in place.

Routine for Patients with Gastric Operations

Operative day, following operation.—The indwelling tube in the stomach should be left in. Irrigation of the tube after two hours with 2 oz. of sterile saline will insure against dilatation of the stomach and reveal any unusual bleeding should it occur. Three thousand cc. of 5 per cent glucose solution is the average need. One thousand cc. of the solution should be made up in normal saline and 2000 in sterile water. In addition, a great many surgeons use one ampule of soluble B complex and 500 mgs. of vitamin C in debilitated patients. One thousand cc. of the fluid should contain 100 cc. of the soluble proteins in especially debilitated patients, and in those having undergone protracted operative procedure. Frequently, blood transfusion on the day of operation, or the intravenous use of plasma is sufficient to replace body proteins.

First day after operation.—The indwelling gastric tube should

1. Fluids by mouth, 2 to 3 oz. tap water or tea may be given orally. The indwelling tube should be aspirated at two or three intervals to prevent distention, or the tube may be connected to intermittent suction apparatus. In addition to what fluid is absorbed from that taken orally, 2000 cc. of 5 per cent glucose should be administered intravenously, to which is added 1 capsule of soluble B complex and 500 mgs. of vitamin C. Intravenous protein administration, in the form of plasma or a prepared solution, on this day, may be necessary to keep up the body proteins in the presence of severe weight loss and when surgical shock occurs. One thousand cc. of the fluid should be made up in saline and 1000 cc. of sterile water.

Second day after operation.—The gastric tube should be retained. Fluid by mouth should be increased to 4 to 6 oz; aspiration of the gastric tube continued, and the same intravenous medication and fluids as for the first day post-operative.

Third day after operation.—The gastric tube may be removed if there is no sign of retention of duodenal content in the stomach. If bile is found in the stomach, fluid by mouth may be started in 4 oz. amounts every hour. Should no nausea or vomiting occur for twelve hours, more liquid may be taken by increasing amounts to 4 to 6 oz. amounts every hour. If nausea appears, stop fluid by mouth, and if pulse-rate, the gastric tube should be reinserted and no food allowed for six to eight hours. In addition, the fluid and glucose should be continued by intravenous administration until the fourth post-operative day.

Fourth day after operation.—By mouth, 6 to 8 oz. amounts every 4 hours made up of water, tea, strained gruel, blanc-mange, custard-milk and water, equal parts. Water between feedings ad lib, discontinuing fluids upon appearance of nausea or epigastric distress.

Fifth day after operation.—Soft diet continued; fruit juice, stewed fruits, double ground meats, mashed or baked potato, soft toast, cream, etc.

Sixth day after operation.—Regular soft diet.

Seventh day after operation.—Regular soft diet.

Eighth day after operation.—throughout hospital stay.

Breakfast:

Cereal with cream and sugar

1 soft cooked egg

Dry toast, buttered

Tea with milk and sugar

Mid-morning:

Whole milk—oz. 6

Luncheon:

Vegetable or meat soup, strained

Baked potato, with butter and salt

Puréed peas

Chopped chicken or ground meat

Dry toast

Custard blanc-mange, ice-cream or strained fruits

Whole milk—oz. 6

Mid-afternoon:

Whole milk—oz. 6

Dinner:

2 puréed vegetables

Soft egg

Dry toast

Stewed apples, peaches (put through colander)

Malted milk

Bed-time:

Whole milk—oz. 6

In some patients the tendency for the re-development of ulcer can be determined from the history of recurring episodes of ulcer over the given number of years. In these patients it is especially important to keep them on bland diet during the post-operative period. The tendency for marginal ulcer development may be materially influenced by diet during this period.

So far, we know of no definite causative factor in patients having recurring ulcer of the gastroduodenal margin, and it is wise in such patients having a history of pre-operative seasonal attacks of hyperacidity and a tendency for recurrence of ulcer to undergo dietary management during this time.

Gall-Bladder Operations.—For pre-operative and post-operative gall bladder dietary schedules, refer to Gall-Bladder Disease.

Appendectomy.—In chronic and subacute appendicitis, the average patient requires no preparation except for the period of six hours before operation when diet and fluids should be restricted. Resumption of fluids four hours post-operatively with sugar and, after twelve hours, a soft diet free from excess fats. Normal diet should be started on the third day.

Cathartics.—In this condition as in all other abdominal ones, cathartic prior to operation is very much contraindicated. Simply leaving it out of the pre-operative orders is frequently not sufficient as almost every patient will discuss the coming event with someone who has been operated upon and who has taken a cathartic as part of pre-operative routine; they will advise the patient to take one likewise, and, as it has happened, the patient may appear for operation with a part of a large dose of castor oil still active in the intestines. This is prone to cause gas pains, nausea and vomiting soon after the operation. Therefore, every patient should be cautioned against taking any laxative or purge. Also, it should be explained that an enema is all that is necessary before operation.

Following operation, cathartics are equally bad. Most patients do better if all laxatives are withheld for the first week and dependence put upon relief of gas by rectal tube before the third day and enemata thereafter.

Colon Cases

Four days are necessary for careful preparation with the usual increase of carbohydrate, fluid intake, and an absolute elimination

residue from the diet insofar as possible. Refer to Mucous Amebic Dysentery and Ulcerative Colitis, also Diet in Rectal lesions, for menus.

obstructive Lesions.—A cleansing dose of castor oil should be on the first of the four days of preparation. This should be followed by the institution of sulfasuxadine, two grams four times a day by mouth. Following this, no enema or colonic irrigation should be employed; a non-residue diet will suffice. On the day of operation, penicillin, 100,000 units every three hours.

obstructive Lesions.—The Miller-Abbott tube has come into use in patients of this type when it can be passed successfully. Obstruction can be relieved and pre-operative preparation carried out much similar to that used in the non-obstructive lesions. Upon successful passage of the Miller-Abbott tube through the upper intestinal tract down to the region of the ileum or into the colon, the relief of obstruction, the patient may be prepared for operation by the intravenous administration of fluid, glucose, chlorides, soluble protein, together with vitamin C and soluble B complex, as in the case that is not obstructed.

For example, a patient, admitted with vomiting, abdominal distention and without sign of gangrene and obstruction, may have a Miller-Abbott tube inserted on admission with the administration of 100 cc. of 5 per cent glucose in normal saline, 1000 mg. of vitamin C, an ampule of soluble B complex. This initial administration of fluid, fluid, carbohydrates and vitamin to be followed by additional amounts of fluid and food elements, depending upon the length of time of obstruction and dehydration the patient has been submitted

to in this way, many patients are decompressed and the bowel above the obstructing site may be restored to a relatively normal state which will permit of one stage operation for resection and anastomosis that would have been impossible without the pre-operative preparation. This type of preparation is not always possible because of the difficulty in passing the Miller-Abbott tube. Failure to pass the tube for eight hours should indicate the necessity for operation and surgical relief of the obstruction, with the additional measures for relief of intestinal obstruction by intravenous therapy as described above. Should the Miller-Abbott tube be successful in decompressing the obstruction, preliminary antibiotic treatment by means of sulfasuxadine, penicillin or streptomycin administration should always be a part of the pre-operative preparation during the twenty-four hours immediately preceding the operation. Two grams of sulfasuxadine every four hours through the tube may be continued, or penicillin and streptomycin in adequate doses may be administered intra-muscularly, starting the injections just before and continuing them up during and after the operation.

post-operative.—Blood transfusion; intravenous fluid administration with glucose, vitamin B and vitamin C, and intravenous protein may be indicated in badly neglected cases. In both the obstructive and non-obstructive types of colon lesions, the first indication is

to supply the fluid and food required for this period. Three or four thousand cc. of fluid intake by intravenous administration will be required. The solution should contain 5 per cent glucose. In addition, 1000 cc. of fluid should be made up in normal saline for patients with a normal chloride balance. Patients operated upon for chronic intestinal obstruction with depleted chloride may require 2000 or perhaps 3000 cc. of solution made up in normal saline. When chloride deficiency is evident, chloride blood determinations will be of assistance in determining the exact amount of chloride to be administered. Vitamin C and vitamin B complex are important in the early post-operative period in a patient in this category.

A general rule to follow would be to administer vitamin C 500 mg. daily dosage, together with 1 or 2 ampules of soluble B complex for the first 4 to 5 days of the post-operative period. Continued use of sulfasuxadine, penicillin and streptomycin will depend upon the operative procedure in connection with the possibility of soiling of the peritoneal cavity during the course of the operation. In each case, the indications and proper dosage of antibiotic measures will be decided by the conditions attendant upon the operative findings and operative experience in each case.

Peritonitis

From whatever cause, peritonitis may and does interfere with the absorption of fluid, food and vitamins. The conditions under which peritonitis may occur have been pretty well covered in the text heretofore. In general, peritonitis interferes with the food absorption, food intake and, the infecting organism will indicate the use of antibiotics. The primary consideration is to ascertain the organisms present; whether or not there may be an associated intestinal obstruction, and to what extent the gastro-intestinal functioned is maintained. In the most extreme instances, no absorption of fluid or food by the gastro-intestinal tract may be expected. In both instances, from 4000 to 6000 cc. of fluid will have to be administered by intravenous routine for a given twenty-four hour period. The addition of 5 per cent glucose to the fluid, with from 9 to 18 grams of sodium chloride per day, 800 to 1000 mg. vitamin C, 1 to 2 ampules of soluble B complex will be indicated.

The antibiotic measures are determined depending upon the invading organism. When there is present the streptococcus or bacillus coli, as is usually the case, penicillin in large doses will be found to be sufficient. The additional use of streptomycin may be instituted when bacillus coli predominate. Too much dependence should not be placed upon the streptomycin. Frequent use of blood plasma and blood transfusion should be resorted to when the bacillus coli infection seems to be out of control.

In all cases of peritonitis the surgeon should be alert to the occurrence of intestinal obstruction. The proper administration of fluid, carbohydrate, soluble protein, vitamins, etc., may be carried out from day to day. Suddenly the patient is seen to be losing ground.

occurs, abdominal distention is apparent, intestinal obstruction suspected. In these cases of peritonitis with inflammatory obstruction, the better policy to pursue is usually medical treatment rather than early operative intervention. The majority of intestinal obstructions of this type will occur after inflammatory exudate has subsided with relief of the obstruction. Opening the abdomen in an attempt to relieve obstruction of this type is disappointing. The intestines are to be found matted together and no definite area of obstruction can usually be determined. It is a much better policy to wait for resolution of inflammatory exudate; in the meantime support the daily metabolism needs of the patient by intravenous means. In such instances the patient may be carried along for three weeks without suffering any undue consequences.

TETANY, INFANTILE.

VINCENT LARKIN M. D.

Definition.—Tetany is a condition characterized by neuro-muscular hyperexcitability which is dependent upon a disturbance of the calcium metabolism. This hyperexcitability gives rise to tonic contraction of the muscles of the extremities and larynx. This results in carpal spasm, laryngismus stridulus and in severe cases, generalized convulsions. It is an underlying etiology in infantile convulsions occurring after the age of five months.

Etiology.—Calcium plays the most important rôle in the etiology of tetany. It occurs almost exclusively in artificially fed babies, although it has sometimes been observed in negro and premature babies that have been entirely breast-fed. Its occurrence is just as frequent in well-nourished as in mal-nourished infants. When it occurs in mal-nourished it is usually associated with rickets. We cannot directly tie the disease to a vitamin D deficiency, but it is probable that the administration of this vitamin exerts a curative effect. No other vitamin seems to be involved. Tetany is rarely observed in infants receiving acid-milk mixtures, but is more apt to occur in those who are taking large amounts of cow's milk together with a small amount of carbohydrates.

Pathogenesis.—The administration of parathyroid extract helps to relieve the symptoms of infantile tetany, and it has been suggested that this condition is the result of parathyroid deficiency. While experimental removal of the parathyroid results in all the manifestations of tetany, nevertheless in infants who have died of this disease there has been no constant change demonstrable in the parathyroid glands.

Calcium.—The most important factor in the pathogenesis of tetany is absolute or relative decrease in the quantity of ionized blood calcium. The normal calcium of 10 to 11 mg. per 100 cc. in latent tetany falls to 7 or 8 mg., and in active tetany below 6 mg. This decrease in calcium of the serum is certainly not related to a deficiency of

calcium in the diet, because the disease is most frequently seen in infants fed on cow's milk which has a much higher calcium content than human milk. The calcium must either be rapidly removed from the blood or poorly absorbed. Cow's milk has a relatively small proportion of phosphate and this interferes to a certain extent with calcium absorption. The feeding of large amounts of cow's milk mixtures with the addition of relatively small amounts of fermentable carbohydrate gives rise to an alkalinity in the intestinal contents which is considered unfavorable to calcium absorption. These factors are further borne out by tetany developing during the early stage of healing rickets, probably due to the fact that the circulating calcium in the blood serum is removed and deposited in calcifying tissues.

The phosphate content of the blood in cases of infantile tetany is either normal or very slightly increased. This increase is not sufficiently high to explain the low calcium content.

After the alkalinity of the serum is increased, even in the presence of normal calcium content, all of the symptoms of tetany may occur. In infants who have developed an alkalosis as the result of vomiting or after prolonged administration of alkalis, tetany may develop. The administration of acid-producing salts leads to a disappearance of these symptoms without bringing about any marked change in the calcium content of the serum.

Diet.—The best means of preventing tetany are breast feeding and exposure to sun and ultra-violet light. Vitamin D, in the form of cod-liver oil or viosterol, is also of great value as a prophylactic measure. In artificially fed infants, the use of acid milk is preferable to sweet milks. The diet should not contain an excessive amount of milk in proportion to other constituents; sugars or cereals should be given in an amount approximating one-tenth of the amount of milk given, vegetables and fruit juices should be excluded from the diet.

Calcium chloride and ammonium chloride are metabolized with the liberation of hydrochloric acid. Therefore these salts may be used efficaciously. In older children who cannot tolerate the taste of ammonium chloride, it may be given in various vehicles.

THRUSH (SPRUE).

VINCENT LARKIN M. D.

Discussion.—Thrush is a mycosis of the mouth, characterized by the growth upon the mucous membrane—in discrete spots or large patches—of white fungus, variously known as monilia candida, albicans and saccharomyces albicans, the latter probably being the best designation. This fungus may be found in sweet substances. It does not attach itself readily to intact mucous membrane, nor does it gain foothold on a damaged membrane of a fairly healthy child.

It is common in infants with harelip and in those children in whom the immunity has been lowered by disease. Measles is a particular cause of its effect on the oral mucous membrane. M

of thrush occur during the first and second year. It thrives in hospitals and institutions because of the debilitated state of the infants and the ease with which rubber nipples, cloths, etc., can be contaminated.

Local applications and mouth washes used for stomatitis have no effect upon thrush. Boric acid and potassium chlorate have been the most effective medicaments. As thrush produces nutritional deficiency which makes the fungus growth possible, the treatment resolves itself into rehabilitation of the patient through proper nutrition. Soft, high-calorie foods and concentrated dry milks should be given in small quantities at frequent intervals. Fish-liver oils and vitamin concentrates, while not specifically indicated, will render aid in rehabilitation. In severe cases, feeding is better facilitated by the use of gavage as the rubber nipple of the bottle causes considerable irritation and retards improvement.

TUBERCULOSIS.

Discussion.—Diet plays an important rôle in both pulmonary and alimentary tuberculosis. Irrespective of the psychological benefit of gained weight with its euphoric acceptance by both the patient and the physician, a better understanding of the nutritional demands of the tuberculous does not always sanction this physical

At the time of this writing, pulmonary tuberculosis is evaluated, not by the extent of the disease, but by the character of the infection. The exudative forms present a sudden and toxic beginning. When this is associated with pulmonary necrosis, caseation and liquefaction promptly follow. The necrotic tissue is expectorated with attendant cavity formation. From the start of this type of tuberculosis, the victim is prone to be intensely toxic. With the expectoration of necrotic lung tissue, the symptoms of toxemia begin to disappear. Unfortunately, the resultant cavitation being an excellent medium for the tubercle bacilli, the bacteria multiply readily. This commonly results in further pulmonary involvement and recurrent toxemia. Hence, the clinical picture of pulmonary tuberculosis is a variegated one as can be readily seen, requiring frequent dietary changes.

The dietetic care of febrile conditions has been universally divided into two types, one for fevers of short duration, such as are encountered in influenza, la grippe, tonsillitis, etc. In these conditions the diet proves to be essentially one of starvation. Solid foods are prohibited and a high fluid intake with moderate carbohydrates, fats and low-caloric value is instituted. This temporary starvation unassociated with acidosis proves beneficial and is felt to hasten convalescence.

The second type of dietetic care of the pyretic is directed at fevers of longer duration in which category tuberculosis probably is the most common.

Those interested in nutrition have definitely reached the conclu-

sion that poundage is not the *sine qua non* of health. The old school emphasized the continued gain of weight of the tuberculous patient. This they accomplished by what is now evident to be shot-gun overfeeding. Those whose work has been restricted to tuberculosis have seen the falsity of this trend of thought.

At the present writing, it has as yet been undetermined what specific rôle diet plays in establishing the resistance of the individual to tuberculosis. It is well recognized, however, that undernourishment predisposes to a questionable prognosis. Clinical experience has taught that a moderately high caloric diet, well-balanced in minerals and vitamins offers a patient a more favorable outlook.

It has been well established that the presence of fever increases the body metabolism to an extent which requires greater caloric intake to offset the burning of endogenous nutritive material. Hence, the total caloric intake demands an increase over the normal calculated maintenance level when fever is present. This is especially true in relation to the protein allotment. Since, however, respiratory activity should be kept at a minimum, the diet should offer sufficient protein, carbohydrate, and fat—but no more. With the patient in bed, 2500 Calories are adequate when furnished by 60 grams of protein, 225 grams of carbohydrate, and 150 grams of fat.

The proper approach to the dietetic care of the tuberculous patient is to establish a complete inventory of the physical being for whom a diet is to be prescribed. This comprises a complete chemical blood study with particular reference to blood calcium, urea nitrogen, non-protein nitrogen, sugar, uric acid, chlorides, phosphorus and hemoglobin. An estimation of the presenting weight in relation to the calculated weight establishes an objective which should not be lost sight of.

Additionally, in order to avoid unpalatability and food aversion, cognizance must be taken of the past dietary habits. Any existing intolerance or allergic reaction should be investigated.

Another factor so often overlooked is the lack of regard for the commonly associated *anorexia*. When the appetite is small, it is ridiculous to outline large volumetric meals. This obstacle can frequently be met most simply by omitting all non-caloric liquids.

It has generally been accepted that an abundance of *vitamins* is indicated. Although increased intake of calcium and a plentiful supply of vitamin D have been stressed as important in tuberculosis, there is evidence that this is not always the wisest course to pursue. Such a procedure may be followed in the acute stage but as convalescence progresses into remission, these two should be provided in normal amounts only. During the acute stage at least 10,000 units of vitamin A are desirable. The intake of ascorbic acid should approximate 100 mg. daily. It is worth noting that Oshorn and Gear (1940) have observed that those animals which are incapable of synthesizing vitamin C are those which are susceptible to tuberculosis. This being the case, a high level of ascorbic acid intake should be maintained in those disposed toward this disease. Gener-

amounts of the vitamin-B complex are also recommended. Hence should be made to the several vitamins for further nutrition.

Sub-normal blood nitrogen readings are pathognomonic of insufficient protein ingestion. Aside from the chemical blood findings the presence of fever always necessitates a higher protein intake than normal. In the presence of *anemia*, either nutritional or due to hemorrhage, it is indicated to administer those foods most capable of increasing hemoglobin. Refer to the anemias.

The question of *dehydration* which both medically and surgically has been a *bête noir* to the profession, can be viewed with much less alarm when its chemistry is better understood. Bearing in mind that this condition exists only in the absence of sufficient osmotic pressure, it is imperative that this be altered to restore the proper tissue balance. In cases of inordinate tissue retention, *i. e.*, cardiac failure with edema, hepatic cirrhosis, Addison's disease, various types of nephritis, etc., all are in accord as to salt restriction. In *dehydration* the opposite program should be instituted and salt should be liberally administered.

It is only of recent years that the profession has come to recognize that the offending radical in salt is not chlorine but sodium. An illustration admirably bearing this out is ammonium chloride which is recognized as being an efficient diuretic, whereas sodium bicarbonate in excessive quantities will produce a generalized edema.

The following list presents those foods which analytically have been found to be *highest in sodium* although not necessarily as sodium chloride:

Bread	Egg-white	Paprika
Butter	Endive	Pepper, black
Carrots	Lima beans (dry)	Raisins
Caviar	Meat extract	Spinach
Cheese	Olives	Watercress
Clams	Oysters	Wheat bran
Crackers (Biscuits)		Wheat-germ

All brined, corned, pickled, smoked and salted foods.

It must not be overlooked that whereas the average tuberculosis patient at the time of diagnosis is generally underweight, it cannot be concluded that this is the case in all patients presenting this disease. It is well recognized that pulmonary tuberculosis afflicts the overweight in a surprisingly large number. In these instances a high-caloric diet naturally is not to be observed. The caloric yield could be reduced but the protein factor should be maintained at a suitable level.

In *résumé*, the regular diet for pulmonary tuberculosis should be moderate in calories and protein during the acute stage and higher in these respects during convalescence. A liberal supply of all vitamins with particular emphasis on vitamins A, B, and C is recom-

mended. Additional augmentations or deprivations will depend upon the individual demands of the case at hand.

Reasonable care should be exercised in the use of the following, although their use in moderation is not actually prohibited: Tea and coffee, beer, ale, in tonic doses; pork products other than bacon and smoked ham.

Advised.

Eggs	Fruits, raw and cooked
Meat and fish	Vegetables, raw and cooked
Milk and milk products	Whole grain cereals

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fresh *or* stewed fruit
Whole grain cereal with cream and sugar
Egg
Whole grain toast or rolls with butter
Milk or cocoa

Midmorning:

Buttermilk, milk *or* eggnog

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup
Choice: meat, fish, eggs *or* cheese
Cooked vegetable
Salad with dressing
Whole grain bread with butter
Fresh *or* stewed fruit
Milk

Midafternoon:

Fruit *or* vegetable juice

Dinner:

Meat *or* fish
Potato
Cooked vegetable
Salad with dressing
Whole grain bread with butter
Simple dessert
Milk

Bedtime:

Milk *or* cocoa

The patient should not be allowed to sleep late into the morning. The breakfast hour is 8 A.M. If breakfast is served at 10 A.M. and the extra feeding given an hour later there will be little room in the stomach for more food at noon! Breakfast should be served at 8 A.M., dinner at 12.30 or 1 P.M. and supper at 6.30 P.M. The meals are to be supplemented by feedings at 10 A.M., 4 P.M. and 9 P.M. Warm milk at 9 P.M. may assist in promoting sleep. The addition of egg white at all times will prove efficient in increasing the daily protein intake.

It is needless to say the writer does not believe that dietary care of tuberculous is the *sine qua non* of recovery. In the presence of no question of availability and assimilation of the nutritive value as well as mineral content of foods, it would be foolhardy to rest on diet alone for optimum response. The selection of proper diet, bed rest, passive and active exercises, together with corrective as well as alleviative medications in conjunction with a proper diet should produce a *tout ensemble* of restoration to health.

Pulmonary Hemorrhage.—All food and fluids should be stopped for twelve hours. During this period small pieces of ice may be used to allay thirst. After the twelve-hour period a typhoid fever diet should be instituted. This diet is soft, high in caloric value, and high in fluids. When temperature and hemorrhage have subsided, return to the regular diet as indicated.

Tuberculous Enteritis.—This is a common complication of pulmonary tuberculosis. Strangely, this is especially true in those cases with cavities. Some authorities believe that every cavity with positive sputum should be looked upon as a potential source of tuberculosis of the intestines. In such conditions a non-residue diet is advised. This necessarily limits the administration of leafy green vegetables and fruits which in turn almost eliminate the much needed vitamin B. Inasmuch as this deficiency affects chiefly the gastro-intestinal tract and the nervous system, it is recommended that a vitamin B concentrate be added to the diet. In a similar manner some workers believe that both vitamins C and D have a selective favorable effect on intestinal tuberculosis. This view advocates the addition of both cod liver oil and tomato juice.

It is not uncommon to encounter an associated disturbance of calcium metabolism in tuberculous enteritis or colitis, which has been observed to result in tetany or tetanoid symptoms. This necessitates specifically infiltrating into the diet those items high in calcium which are not contraindicated due to their roughage content. Foods most readily adaptable are milk in any form, ice-cream, cocoa and egg-yolk

is advised.

Foods.	Fish.	Vegetables.
Beef	Bluefish	Hominy
Lamb	Cod	Potatoes
Liver	Mackerel	Puréed peas or beans; skins removed
Poultry	Oysters	Rice
	Salmon	Tomatoes stewed and strained
	Weakfish	Cauliflower tops

Dairy Products.

Miscellaneous.

Butter	Cream of wheat	Plain cakes
Cheese	Custards	Simple puddings
Cream	Farina	Stewed fruits
Eggs	Fruit juices	(without skins)
Egg-white	Ice-cream	Strained rolled oats
Milk	Jellies	White bread

Omit.

Most green vegetables, salads, raw fruits, sugar in concentrated form (as candies, etc.).

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit juice
Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Egg, except fried
Toast *or* rolls with butter
Milk *or* cocoa

Midmorning:

Buttermilk *or* milk

Luncheon:

Choice: meat, fish, eggs *or* cheese
Puréed vegetables
Bread with butter
Stewed fruit
Milk

Midafternoon:

Eggnog, custard, junket *or* ice-cream

Dinner:

Cream of vegetable soup
Meat *or* fish
Potato, baked or mashed
Puréed vegetables
Bread with butter
Simple dessert
Milk *or* coffee

Bedtime:

Milk *or* cocoa

Suggestions. — Refer to Mucous Colitis, Amebic Dysentery, Ulcerative Colitis, Bland Foods and Foods Lowest in Cellulose for further dietetic suggestions.

Tuberculosis of the Larynx.

Laryngeal tuberculosis without dysphagia necessitates the regular diet for tuberculosis as hereafter outlined.

In tuberculosis of the larynx with dysphagia, it is necessary to plan menus which are not bulky and are bland, so that increased salivation and pain can be somewhat controlled. In severe cases the nutrition is maintained with considerable difficulty. The type of diet for this condition varies directly with the degree of dysphagia present. In brief, the diet resolves itself into one which is either fluid or semi-fluid in character. A practical rule to follow is that all foods which "pour" should be administered.

Tuberculosis of the Skin.

Refer to Dermatology for a complete description of the Gerson

the Gerson-Sauerbruch-Herrmansdorfer diet which is believed of great value in treating tuberculosis of the skin.

TYPHOID FEVER.

Discussion.—The dietetic management of the typhoid patient has undergone a marked metamorphosis during the past thirty years. Up to this period, the accepted diet was one of restriction. This restriction was observed in reference to both dietary volume and caloric value. The older school accomplished this by the utilization of a milk diet, augmented by broths. Bearing in mind the commonly associated anorexia together with the various idiosyncrasies and foibles of the patients, this older diet practically amounted to starvation. Invariably, after a successful termination of the disease, a very lengthy convalescence was faced. Not only did the patient have to recuperate from the pyrexia and toxemia, but also from a three-week or longer starvation with resultant anemia, prostration, destruction and deprivation.

The present dietetic attitude reverses the strictly adhered-to tenets of the older regimen. Today the customary diet is arranged to give a 50-pound patient between 3000 and 4000 Calories *per diem*. The experience of the medical profession in instituting this higher caloric diet in contradistinction to one of 1000 Calories or less has been exceedingly gratifying.

Coleman (1907), who was instrumental in bringing about this change from low- to high-caloric feeding, after extensive observations made on two groups of typhoid patients of 22 cases per group, one group representing a high- and the other a low-caloric feeding, reached the following conclusions:

The total duration of the disease was unaltered in each group.
The time of convalescence was materially decreased in those on high-caloric feeding.

Oral conditions of patients on high-caloric feeding were better.

Nausea and vomiting were slightly less on high-caloric diets.

High-caloric diets increased the incidence of tympanites approximately 100 per cent.

Diarrhea occurred with about one-third the frequency in those cases maintained by the higher diet.

Associated nervous symptoms likewise were observable in about one-third the percentage of those on low-caloric diet.

Perforation in high-caloric diet was less than 1 per cent, whereas in low-caloric feeding yielded over 3 per cent.

Relapses were observed in 8 per cent of patients on high-caloric feeding. The low-caloric incidence was almost 15 per cent.

Mortality in high-caloric cases was 8.1 per cent as against 17.6 per cent in those patients on low-caloric feeding.

When treating typhoid the practitioner is dealing with a severe general metabolic disturbance. The basal metabolic rate of the patient is increased. This appears to be in direct proportion to the

amount of temperature generated. The protein destruction excessive. The amount of destruction has been held to be the fold more than that observed in normal health. The metabolism of carbohydrates, the great human fuel, remains as observed in health. The tendency toward the development of anemia is very severe, due to the excessive protein destruction together with the decreased protein intake and the associated mal-assimilation of protein.

A presentation of the diets as used by Coleman, with slight modification, permits little betterment in the dietetic care of the present-day typhoid patient.

Owing to the decrease in incidence of typhoid fever during the past twenty years, the establishment of any new diet would be preposterous and unwarranted. The incidence of typhoid fever, not only in practice but even in the large civil hospitals, has become relatively negligible.

The aim in feeding the typhoid patient is manifold: The maintenance of body weight to prevent wasting; the provision of readily assimilable items of diet; the furnishing of sufficient protein to replace the severe drain on the already overtaxed body protein; sufficient carbohydrates to save further destruction of body protein and fat; and the insurance of adequate liquid intake. The practitioner can reasonably anticipate that a high-caloric diet not only will offset any loss in weight at the termination of the disease, but frequently a gain over the initiatory weight. Naturally this discounts the incidence of complication such as hemorrhage or perforation.

Clinically, the problem presented is the combating of pyrexia, toxemia and localized ulcerations.

Several specifications in dietetic management are to be observed. Avoidance of overloading the stomach at any one time; omission of those foods which tend to abdominal distention; deletion of food producing an undue constipation; omission from the diet of those items which, in specific cases, are not tolerated.

The mentioned conditions can be best met with a diet high in caloric value (2000 to 3000 Calories), predominating in liquid, and moderately low in fat (owing to the generally associated acidosis). Frequently administered feedings of relatively small volume are recommended to avoid overdistention.

DIETS OF VARIOUS CALORIC VALUES USED BY COLEMAN.

The author has not corrected the caloric values of the various food items presented in the Coleman diet.

For all practical purposes the necessity for greater caloric specificity does not obtain.

1000-Calorie Day.

Milk, 1 quart (1000 cc.)
 Cream, $\frac{1}{3}$ ounce (10 cc.)
 Lactose, $1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces (50 grams)

1500-Calorie Day.

Milk, $1\frac{1}{2}$ quarts (1500 cc.)
 Cream, $1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces (50 cc.)
 Lactose, $3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces (100 grams)

ings, each to contain:

, 4 ounces
m, 2 drams
ose, 6 grams

8 Feedings, each to contain:

Milk, 6 ounces
Cream, 2 drams
Lactose, 16 grams

Calorie Day.

k, 1½ quarts (1500 cc.)
am, 8 ounces (240 cc.)
ose, 4 ounces (125 grams)

3000-Calorie Day.

Milk, 1½ quarts (1500 cc.)
Cream, 1 pint (480 cc.)
Lactose, 8 ounces (250 grams)

ings, each to contain:

k, 7 ounces
am, 1 ounce
tose, 18 grams

8 Feedings, each to contain:

Milk, 6 ounces
Cream, 2 ounces
Lactose, 1 ounce (30 grams)

Calorie Day.

k, 1½ quarts (1500 cc.)
am, 8 ounces (240 cc.)
tose, 8 ounces (250 grams)

3900-Calorie Day.

Milk, 1½ quarts (1500 cc.)
Cream, 1 pint (480 cc.)
Lactose, 16 ounces (480 grams)

ings, each to contain:

lk, 7 ounces
eam, 1 ounce
ctose, 36 grams

8 Feedings, each to contain:

Milk, 6 ounces
Cream, 2 ounces
Lactose, 2 ounces

Following Diet Furnishes Approximately 4000 Calories:

	Hours.	Total.	Calories.
Milk, 6 ounces	9 A.M.—1, 3, 7 P.M.	1260 cc.	} About 2000 Calories
Cream, 2 ounces	10 P.M.—1, 4 A.M.	420 cc.	
Lactose, 10 grams	Distributed	70 gm.	
1000 A.M.			Calories.
Egg, 1			80
Toast, 1 slice			80
Butter, 20 grams			150
Coffee, cream, 2 ounces			120
Lactose, 20 grams			80
Total			510

A.M.	Calories.
Egg, 1	80
Mashed potato, 20 grams	20
Custard, 4 ounces	250
Toast (or bread), 1 slice	80
Butter, 20 grams	150
Coffee, cream, 2 ounces	120
Lactose, 20 grams	80
<hr/>	
	Total 780

5.00 P.M.	Calories.
Egg, 1	80
Cereal, 3 tablespoonfuls	150
Cream, 2 ounces	120
Apple sauce, 1 ounce	30
Tea, cream, 3 ounces	180
Lactose, 20 grams	80
<hr/>	
Total	640

Lactose-sweetened lemonade may be substituted for the mixture at 3 P.M.

The Following Diet Furnishes Approximately 5500 Calories:

	Hours.	Total.	Calorie
Milk, 5 ounces	9, 11 A.M.—1, 3, 7 P.M.	1200 cc.	} About 2800 Calories
Cream, 2 ounces	10 P.M.—1, 4 A.M.	480 cc.	
Lactose, 15 grams	Distributed	120 gm.	
<hr/>			
7.00 A.M.			Calories
Egg, 1			80
Toast, 2 slices			160
Butter, 20 grams			150
Coffee, cream, 3 ounces			180
Lactose, 20 grams			80
<hr/>			
Total			650
<hr/>			
11.00 A.M.			Calories
Eggs, 2			160
Toast, 2 slices			160
Butter, 20 grams			150
Mashed potato, 70 grams			70
Custard, 8 ounces			500
<hr/>			
Total			1040
<hr/>			
5.00 P.M.			Calories
Egg, 1			80
Toast, 2 slices			160
Butter, 20 grams			150
Cereal, 6 tablespoonfuls			290
Cream, 4 ounces			240
Apple sauce, 1 ounce			30
Tea, cream, 2 ounces			120
Lactose, 20 grams			80
<hr/>			
Total			1150

Following Diet Furnishes Approximately 5500 Calories:

Menu, although calorically equivalent to the preceding, is adapted for the later stages of convalescence.

	<i>Hours.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	<i>Calories.</i>
5 ounces	9, 11 A.M.—1, 7 P.M.	1050 cc.	} About 2300 Calories
Broth, 3 ounces	10 P.M.—1, 4 A.M.	630 cc.	
Lactose, 15 grams	Distributed	105 gm.	

<i>A.M.</i>	<i>Calories.</i>
Eggs, 1	80
Cereal, 5 tablespoonfuls	250
Cream, 2 ounces	120
Toast, 2 slices	160
Butter, 20 grams	150
Coffee, cream, 2 ounces	120
Lactose, 20 grams	80

Total 960

<i>A.M.</i>	<i>Calories.</i>
Eggs, 2	160
Mashed potato, 80 grams	80
Mustard, 8 ounces	500
Creamed chicken, 1 ounce	50
Toast, 2 slices	160
Butter, 20 grams	150

Total 1100

<i>P.M.</i>	<i>Calories.</i>
Lemonade (lactose, 120 grams)	480

<i>P.M.</i>	<i>Calories.</i>
Cereal, 2 tablespoonfuls	290
Cream, 2 ounces	120
Toast, 2 slices	160
Lactose, 20 grams	80

Total 650

Precautions.—The appearance of intestinal hemorrhage or perforation demands complete cessation of solid and liquid ingestion. Immediate procedure to be instituted in these cases is the same as for gastric hemorrhage. Surgical aid is specifically indicated in perforation.

In some cases it is found that while cow's milk disagrees, the use of cow's milk with alkaline waters or Vichy may be tolerated. In the event of continued cow's milk intolerance, the institution of peptonized or some like milk modification is indicated. In the event that cow's milk, in liquid form, no matter how altered,

is still intolerable, the prescription of any of the well-known milk formulæ may be attempted. In the event of still further or milk modification difficulty, the administration of almond may be tried.

If bowel looseness intervenes, peptonized milk, barley, arrow or rice gruels may be infiltrated into the diet.

In the presence of continued gastric distress, bloating, nausea, heartburn, belching, etc., a study of the gastric acid content may be indicated. Following this determination, alteration in the diet associated with acid or alkali therapy will often prove beneficial. The administration of bismuth or like medications should be carefully watched. Flatulence can frequently be controlled by substituting cane sugar for milk sugar, the omission of potato, if prescribed, and the giving of liquids between feedings rather than at feeding times. Frequently, specific foods such as cocoa, too highly sweetened fruit juices, malted milk, etc., have been proved capable of producing flatulence.

The clinician should bear in mind that protein is derived essentially from egg-white, fish, meat and milk curd. This is particularly important when a diet for convalescence is to be instituted.

The dietetic changes indicated in diarrhea are dependent, in children, on the physical characteristics of the excreta. Briefly, the contents, when offensive, are either fermentative or acrid. The former generally indicates too high a carbohydrate intake and the latter a fat imbalance. An analysis of the stool will often indicate the dietary change.

As in treating all disease, it must be borne in mind that we are dealing with an acutely ill individual in whom the appetite is not only generally diminished but capable of great caprice. Here it is wise wherever feasible to consult the patient's palate before instituting any diet. It is needless, and frequently detrimental, when a patient has had a long-standing abhorrence of certain foods to insist on the taking of these foods when substitution can readily be accomplished.

The proper care of the mouth and nose frequently aids in maintaining an appetite. This care in general also effects a better mental condition in relation to food.

Often it is necessary to continue the frequent feeding throughout the twenty-four-hour period. This is particularly essential when the patient has rebelled at a number of feedings offered during the day, or in those cases in which the quantity taken is sufficiently below that required to produce a good caloric yield.

For the dietetic care of the irrational patient refer to Supplementary Methods of Feeding. Refer also to Fluid Foods and Soft Foods.

ULCER, GASTRIC AND DUODENAL.

CLARENCE FULLER, M.D.

Discussion.—In the management of gastric and duodenal ulcers the physician is called upon to outline a specific dietetic scheme in which the individual food items and the quantities for each are

ely stated, leaving the patient no alternative in respect

distinction between duodenal and gastric ulcer is made
their dietetic treatment. They are considered biologically
both having the same pathogenesis, progress and response
ment. At times, they diverge so slightly clinically, that
ation is exceedingly difficult.

ly clinical variation that seems to be outstanding is that
plain-of pain in duodenal ulcer is alleviated by food,
in gastric ulcer it is aggravated thereby. The excess
hydrochloric acid is more commonly associated with duo-
an with gastric ulcer.

se conditions, gastric and duodenal ulcer, a careful gastro-
l history is probably more essential than in any other
of this tract. More cases are mis-diagnosed ulcer of the
than any other symptom-complex with which we come in

This is probably due to past teachings, in which pain
ting, alleviated by food, associated with heartburn, water-
etc., was taught to mean ulcer. This syndrome, we have
is that of gastric hyperacidity of which, truly, ulcer is a
roducing factor. However, gastric hyperacidity, *per se*, is
essarily pathogenic of ulcer but most frequently represents
extra-gastric etiology. Illustrations of this are commonly
d in gall-bladder disease, chronic appendicitis, pyelitis, peri-
ic abscess, renal calculi, ovarian tumors, uterine fibroids,
mucous colitis, etc.

ate, a definite etiology for duodenal or gastric ulcer has not
atisfactorily demonstrated. It has been definitely proved
gastric hyperacidity alone does not produce ulcer, but is an
panying finding.

kly, the economic treatment of ulcer rests with surgery.
er, in viewing surgical results, the economy thereby obtained,
minority of cases, is often definitely dissipated in subsequent
l care.

types of treatment for gastric or duodenal ulcer divide
lves into two types: stationary and ambulatory.

object in treatment is motor and secretory rest of the stomach.
all, psychic stimulation of gastric activity is unpardonable.
r contractions are to be avoided. Both at bedtime and, if
e, at 2 or 3 A.M. the patient should be given bread and butter
k and cream. Emotional calm is to be sought. Naturally,
ion to bed will insure more gastric rest. This is advisable
first part, if not the whole course, of the treatment. Exer-
r the bedridden (stationary) patient is omitted. Whatever
muscle tone develops may be restored readily at a later period.
ulatory therapy, although far from ideal, is one that is
e of good results if properly supervised. Even in ambulant
ement, exercise should be kept to a minimum wherever pos-
being restricted to household and business duties.

medical care of ulcer is not purely a dietary one. The judicious

use of properly selected medications is as essential as the scientific adherence to a correctly prescribed diet.

The general feeling in the present state of scientific advance, surgical and medical, is that one or two courses of medical therapy should be attempted prior to operative interference. It should be stressed that mucous membranes do not heal under starvation. Adequate nutrition, especially as regards certain vitamin factors, must be established.

It seems wise to present, for the benefit of the practitioner, a series of diets adopted from standard sources. Various names, such as Lenhartz, Sippy, Einhorn, Meulengracht, Andresen and others stand forth as representing years of painstaking experimentation associated with large clinical experience, in the care of ulcer. Each of the following diets has strong advocates and critics. The real issue is that decision as to proper diet can best be left with the individual practitioner.

Lenhartz Diet.—The total duration of the Lenhartz diet is four days, during which time hourly feedings are administered either from 7 A.M. to 7 P.M. or 8 A.M. to 8 P.M. Customarily, a complete twelve-hour rest period during the course of the night is observed. This diet is definitely not an ambulatory one.

The principle of the Lenhartz diet is the institution of a low caloric diet, increasing very rapidly from 280 Calories per day to 3073 Calories, arrived at on the fourteenth day. This diet produces a partial gastric rest for the first week. Following this period the diet approaches a normal one with the exception that it is predominantly bland.

The eggs utilized in each day's feeding are beaten up raw and equally divided into the number of feedings indicated. All feedings are spoon-fed. The following details clearly indicate the method of institution:

First Day:

7.00 A.M.	Egg
8.00 A.M.	Milk, 20 cc. ($\frac{2}{3}$ ounce)
9.00 A.M.	Egg
10.00 A.M.	Milk, 20 cc. ($\frac{2}{3}$ ounce)
11.00 A.M.	Egg
NOON.	Milk, 15 cc. ($\frac{1}{2}$ ounce)
1.00 P.M.	Egg
2.00 P.M.	Milk, 15 cc. ($\frac{1}{2}$ ounce)
3.00 P.M.	Egg
4.00 P.M.	Milk, 15 cc. ($\frac{1}{2}$ ounce)
5.00 P.M.	Egg
6.00 P.M.	Milk, 15 cc. ($\frac{1}{2}$ ounce)
7.00 P.M.	Egg

Total: eggs (raw), 2; milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); Calories, 280

Day:

0 A.M. Egg
 1 A.M. Milk, 30 cc. (1 ounce)
 2 A.M. Egg
 3 A.M. Milk, 30 cc. (1 ounce)
 4 A.M. Egg
 5 A.M. Milk, 30 cc. (1 ounce)
 6 P.M. Egg
 7 P.M. Milk, 30 cc. (1 ounce)
 8 P.M. Egg
 9 P.M. Milk, 30 cc. (1 ounce)
 10 P.M. Egg
 11 P.M. Milk, 30 cc. (1 ounce)
 12 P.M. Egg
 Eggs (raw), 3; milk, 200 cc. ($6\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); Calories, 470.

Day:

0 A.M. Egg; sugar, 2 grams ($\frac{1}{2}$ dram)
 1 A.M. Milk, 50 cc. ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
 2 A.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 3 A.M. Milk, 50 cc. ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
 4 A.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 5 A.M. Milk, 50 cc. ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
 6 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 7 P.M. Milk, 50 cc. ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
 8 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 9 P.M. Milk, 50 cc. ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
 10 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 11 P.M. Milk, 50 cc. ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
 12 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 Eggs (raw), 4; milk, 300 cc. (10 ounces); sugar, 20 grams
 (rams); Calories, 637.

Day:

0 A.M. Egg; sugar, 2 grams ($\frac{1}{2}$ dram)
 1 A.M. Milk, 70 cc. ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
 2 A.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 3 A.M. Milk, 70 cc. ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
 4 A.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 5 A.M. Milk, 65 cc. (2 ounces)
 6 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 7 P.M. Milk, 65 cc. (2 ounces)
 8 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 9 P.M. Milk, 65 cc. (2 ounces)
 10 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 11 P.M. Milk, 65 cc. (2 ounces)
 12 P.M. Egg; sugar, 3 grams ($\frac{3}{4}$ dram)
 Eggs (raw), 5; milk, 400 cc. ($13\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 20 grams
 (rams); Calories, 777.

Fifth Day:

7.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, 4 grams (1 dram)
8.00 A.M.	Milk, 80 cc. ($2\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
9.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, 4 grams (1 dram)
10.00 A.M.	Milk, 80 cc. ($2\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
11.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, 4 grams (1 dram)
NOON.	Milk, 80 cc. ($2\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
1.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)
2.00 P.M.	Milk, 80 cc. ($2\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
3.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)
4.00 P.M.	Milk, 80 cc. ($2\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
5.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)
6.00 P.M.	Milk, 90 cc. (3 ounces)
7.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)

Total: eggs (raw), 6; milk, 500 cc. ($16\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 30 grams (1 ounce); Calories, 966.

Sixth Day:

7.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, 4 grams (1 dram)
8.00 A.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
9.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram); scraped beef, 36 grams (3 drams)
10.00 A.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
11.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)
NOON.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
1.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram); scraped beef, 36 grams (3 drams)
2.00 P.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
3.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)
4.00 P.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
5.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, 4 grams (1 dram); scraped beef, 36 grams (3 drams)
6.00 P.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
7.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams (1 dram)

Total: eggs (raw), 7; milk, 600 cc. (20 ounces); sugar, 30 grams (1 ounce); scraped beef, 36 grams (9 drams); Calories, 1135.

Seventh Day:

7.00 A.M.	1 soft-boiled egg
8.00 A.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces)
9.00 A.M.	Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
10.00 A.M.	Milk, 100 cc. ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 33 grams (1 ounce)
11.00 A.M.	1 soft-boiled egg
NOON.	Milk, 125 cc. (4 ounces)
1.00 P.M.	Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
2.00 P.M.	Milk, 125 cc. (4 ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 33 grams (1 ounce)
3.00 P.M.	1 soft-boiled egg

h Day—Continued:

- 7.00 P.M. Milk, 125 cc. (4 ounces)
- 8.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{3}$ drams)
- 9.00 P.M. Milk, 125 cc. (4 ounces); scraped beef, 24 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 34 grams (1 ounce)
- 10.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg
- 11.00 P.M. 4 eggs (raw), 4, and soft-boiled, 4; milk, 700 cc. ($23\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 100 grams ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces), with beef juice; Calories, 1580.

The diet changes on the eighth day, requiring only 4 raw eggs, which may be divided into three feedings. The other 4 eggs are soft-boiled and given as directed by the diet.

h Day:

- 7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg
- 8.00 A.M. Milk, 135 cc. ($4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces)
- 9.00 A.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
- 10.00 A.M. Milk, 133 cc. ($4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 33 grams (1 ounce)
- 11.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
- NOON. Milk, 133 cc. ($4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces)
- 1.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
- 2.00 P.M. Milk, 133 cc. ($4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 33 grams (1 ounce)
- 3.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg
- 4.00 P.M. Milk, 133 cc. ($4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces)
- 5.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{2}$ drams); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
- 6.00 P.M. Milk, 133 cc. ($4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); scraped beef, 24 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 34 grams (1 ounce)
- 7.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg
- 8.00 P.M. 4 eggs (raw), 4, and soft-boiled, 4; milk, 800 cc. ($26\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 100 grams ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 20 grams (5 drams); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); Calories, 1720.

h Day:

- 7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg
- 8.00 A.M. Milk, 150 cc. (5 ounces)
- 9.00 A.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
- 10.00 A.M. Milk, 150 cc. (5 ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 66 grams (2 ounces)
- 11.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; zwieback, 20 grams (5 drams)
- NOON. Milk, 150 cc. (5 ounces)
- 1.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
- 2.00 P.M. Milk, 150 cc. (5 ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 67 grams (2 ounces)
- 3.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; zwieback, 20 grams (5 drams)

Ninth Day—Continued:

- 4.00 P.M. Milk, 150 cc. (5 ounces)
 5.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
 6.00 P.M. Milk, 150 cc. (5 ounces); scraped beef, 24 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 67 grams (2 ounces)
 7.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg

Total: eggs (raw), 4, and cooked, 4; milk, 900 cc. (30 ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); rice, 200 grams ($6\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces) or toast, 20 grams (5 drams); Calories, 2138.

Tenth Day:

- 7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg
 8.00 A.M. Milk, 166 cc. ($5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces)
 9.00 A.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
 10.00 A.M. Milk, 168 cc. ($5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 66 grams (2 ounces)
 11.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; zwieback, 20 grams (5 drams); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)
 NOON. Cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (6 drams); milk, 166 cc. ($5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces)
 1.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams)
 2.00 P.M. Milk, 166 cc. ($5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); scraped beef, 23 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 66 grams (2 ounces); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)
 3.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; zwieback, 20 grams (5 drams); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)
 4.00 P.M. Cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (5 drams)
 5.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
 6.00 P.M. Milk, 166 cc. ($5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); scraped beef, 24 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 67 grams (2 ounces); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)
 7.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg

Total: eggs (raw), 4, and cooked, 4; milk, 1000 cc. ($33\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 200 grams ($6\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 40 grams (1 ounce), or toast, 20 grams (5 drams); chicken, 50 grams ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); butter, 20 grams (5 drams); Calories, 2478.

Eleventh Day:

- 7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)
 8.00 A.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams); scraped beef, 23 grams (5 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
 11.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

th Day—Continued:

00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams); cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces)

00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 20 grams (5 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{2}$ drams); cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zweiback 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams); scraped beef, 30 grams (1 ounce)

al: eggs (raw), 4, and cooked, 4; milk, 1000 cc. ($33\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); butter, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 300 grams (10 ounces); zwieback, 60 grams (2 ounces); chicken, 50 grams ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); Calories, 2941.

fth Day:

7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)

9.00 A.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams); scraped beef, 35 grams (1 ounce); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

1.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zwieback 20 grams (5 drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

1.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams); cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

3.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 35 grams (1 ounce); boiled rice, 50 grams ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

5.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{2}$ drams); cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (6 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

7.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 250 cc. ($8\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); zwieback 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

tal: eggs (raw), 4, and cooked, 4; milk, 1000 cc. ($33\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 300 grams (10 ounces); zwieback, 80 grams ($2\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); chicken, 50 grams ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); butter, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); Calories, 2941.

Thirteenth Day:

- 7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 142 cc. ($4\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 4 grams (1 dram)
- 9.00 A.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams); milk, 142 cc. (5 ounces); scraped beef, 20 grams (5 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 20 grams (5 drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
- 11.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 144 cc. (5 ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
- 1.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 13 grams (3 drams); milk, 142 cc. (5 ounces); cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (5 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams (1 dram)
- 3.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 144 cc. (5 ounces); scraped beef, 20 grams (5 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)
- 5.00 P.M. Egg; sugar, 14 grams ($3\frac{1}{2}$ drams); milk, 142 cc. (5 ounces); cooked chopped chicken, 25 grams (5 drams); boiled rice, 75 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams (1 dram)
- 7.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; milk, 144 cc. (5 ounces); zwieback, 10 grams ($2\frac{1}{2}$ drams); butter, 6 grams ($1\frac{1}{2}$ drams)

Total: eggs (raw), 4, and cooked, 4; milk, 1000 cc. ($33\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 300 grams (10 ounces); zwieback, 80 grams (2 ounces); chicken, 50 grams ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); butter, 40 grams (1 ounce); Calories, 3007.

Fourteenth Day:

- 7.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; minced chop; buttered toast; milk, 142 cc. ($4\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
- 9.00 A.M. Boiled rice; buttered zwieback; custard; milk, 142 cc. ($4\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
- 11.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; buttered zwieback; junket; milk, 144 cc. (5 ounces)
- 1.00 P.M. Minced chicken; boiled rice; buttered zwieback; custard; milk, 142 cc. ($4\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
- 3.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; cooked scraped beef; boiled rice; buttered toast; milk, 144 cc. (5 ounces)
- 5.00 P.M. Minced chicken; boiled rice; buttered zwieback; custard; milk, 142 cc. ($4\frac{2}{3}$ ounces)
- 7.00 P.M. 1 soft-boiled egg; buttered toast; milk, 144 cc. (5 ounces)

ninth Day—Continued:

al: eggs (raw), 4, and cooked, 4; milk, 1000 cc. ($33\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); sugar, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); scraped beef, 70 grams ($2\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); boiled rice, 300 grams (10 ounces); zwieback, 100 grams ($3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); butter, 40 grams ($1\frac{1}{3}$ ounces); chicken, 50 grams ($1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces); Calories, 3073.

can be seen, the diet after the first week is a very heavy vol-
 ric one. Frequently, the quantity during the last few days
 have to be restricted in order to add to the patient's comfort,
 change to some other diet instituted. For satisfactory results,
 diet should be restricted to bed cases. Its efficacy is most
 nounced in acute ulcers. Refer to Foods Lowest in Water and
 d Foods for further augmentation.

Sippy Diet.—Sippy's claims were that continual neutralization of
 gastric acid will completely heal the presenting ulcer. In addi-
 to a special neutralizing diet he strongly advocated the use of
 lies. Gastric washings nightly, to remove excess acid, were also
 eated.

he choice of antacid therapy must vary with the patient and
 the progress shown. Provision should be made for an optimal
 ke of vitamin C (pp. 43, 83). Orange juice often cannot be
 n without the use of an antacid unless immediately preceded
 milk. The orange juice should not be prepared until the patient
 eady to take it. A satisfactory routine for diminishing gastric
 ity involves the use of a nantacid at hourly intervals, after each
 ing. The antacid of choice is one of the aluminum hydroxide
 arations, with the addition of sufficient magnesium oxide or
 gnesium trisilicate to counteract the constipating effect.

The Sippy diet continues for a period of twenty-eight days and
 outlined as follows:

et to Tenth Day:

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| First Day. | $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce each milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M. |
| Second Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M. |
| Third Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M. |
| Fourth Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
1 egg at NOON feeding |
| Fifth Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
1 egg at NOON; 1 egg at 5 P.M. |
| Sixth Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
3 ounces fine cereal at 7 A.M. feeding
1 egg at NOON; 1 egg at 5 P.M. |
| Seventh Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
3 ounces fine cereal at 7 A.M. feeding
1 egg at 9 A.M.; 1 egg at NOON
1 egg at 5 P.M. |
| Eighth Day. | 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
3 ounces fine cereal at 7 A.M. and 3 P.M.
1 egg at 9 A.M., NOON and 5 P.M. |

First to Tenth Day:—Continued:

- Ninth Day. 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
Same as eighth day with 1 egg at 8 P.M.
- Tenth Day. 3 ounces milk and cream hourly, 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.
3 ounces fine cereal at 7 A.M., 11 A.M., 3 P.M.
1 egg at 9 A.M., NOON, 5 P.M., 8 P.M.

Tenth Day to Third Week:

Same as above except that a small slice of toast with butter added at 11 A.M., 1 P.M., 3 P.M. and 5 P.M.

Third Week:

- 7.00 A.M. Strained oatmeal with cream, 1 slice toast, 6 ounces milk and cream, juice of 1 orange
- 9.00 A.M. 1 soft-boiled egg, 1 slice toast, 1 teaspoonful preserves, 6 ounces milk and cream
- 11.00 A.M. 1 raw egg with 6 ounces milk and cream
- 1.00 P.M. 1 spoonful mashed potato with butter, 1 slice toast with butter, 6 ounces milk
- 3.00 P.M. Tapioca pudding with cream, 1 slice toast, 1 soft-boiled egg, 6 ounces milk and cream
- 5.00 P.M. 1 egg with milk, prune soufflé, 1 slice toast with butter
- 7.00 P.M. Cream of Wheat with butter, apple sauce, 6 ounces milk and cream
- 9.00 P.M. 1 coddled or soft-boiled egg, 1 slice toast, 6 ounces milk and cream

Fourth Week:

- 7.00 A.M. 7 ounces milk and cream, $\frac{1}{2}$ glass orange juice
- 8.30 A.M. Well-cooked cereal with sugar and cream, 1 spoonful apple sauce, 1 poached egg on toast, glass of milk and cream
- 11.00 A.M. Glass of milk and cream
- 12.30 P.M. Oysters (panned, creamed or raw) or very tender meat or fish, baked or mashed potato with butter, toast, tapioca pudding with cream, glass of milk and cream
- 3.00 P.M. Glass of milk and cream, $\frac{1}{2}$ glass orange juice
- 5.00 P.M. Glass of milk and cream, toast with butter and preserves
- 6.30 P.M. Soft-boiled egg, Cream of Wheat with butter, 2 slices toast, rice pudding (no raisins) with cream, glass of milk and cream
- 9.00 P.M. 1 glass of milk and cream, gelatin dessert with cream or small well-baked apple without core or skin

The milk and cream should be kept constantly cold. In hospitals very frequently the mixtures are made up for the day and kept in thermos jugs or in a pitcher surrounded by cracked ice.

Einhorn Diet.—Einhorn places emphasis upon complete gastric rest. This is accomplished by the passing of the duodenal tube, at one end of which is attached a "bucket." It is through this tube frequent feedings are administered over a period of ten to fifteen days. Barring symptoms of duodenal irritation or undue distress, the tube is left in place and not removed day or night for the total duration of the treatment.

Following from Einhorn, the following is the regimen: "The feeding is done at intervals of two hours. After the feeding, water is then air is forced through the tube and the stopcock closed. Between feedings between 240 and 300 cc. of food can be introduced. All fluids must, of course, be at body temperature. Usually the following material is used every two hours from 7 A.M. to 9 P.M.;—milk, 240 cc.; raw egg, 1; sugar of milk, 15 grams—this mixture is well beaten up and injected at blood temperature. The patient may be given, besides, 1 quart of physiological salt solution by rectum, according to the Murphy drip method, or may have water directly into the duodenum very slowly drop by drop." The following is a detailed presentation:

EINHORN DIET.

Oatmeal	300 cc.
Eggs	7
Pea soup	720 cc.
Lactose	90 cc.
Butter	90 cc.
Barley gruel or barley water	180 cc.
Purée of potato	260 cc.

8.30 A.M.

Oatmeal gruel	180 cc.	6 ounces
1 egg		
Butter	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce
Lactose	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce

9.30 A.M.

Pea soup	180 cc.	6 ounces
1 egg		
Butter	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce
Lactose	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce

10.30 A.M.

Same as 9.30 A.M.

11.30 P.M.

Purée of potato	180 grams	6 ounces
1 egg		

12.30 P.M.

Oatmeal gruel	180 cc.	6 ounces
Butter	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce
Lactose	15 grams	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce

5.30 P.M.

Same as 9.30 A.M.

7.30 P.M.

Barley gruel 180 cc. 6 ounces

1 egg

Butter 15 grams $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce

9.30 P.M.

Purée of potato, 1 180 cc. 6 ounces

1 egg

It is not uncommon to encounter patients with a definite intolerance to milk, which may be purely psychic or allergic. Kast has recommended the substitution of almond milk. Einhorn feeding can be given either orally or through the duodenal tube. The modification which we have observed has been the omission of bouillon from the dietary and the substitution therefor of thin potato purée made without milk.

Meulengracht Diet.—This diet is highly regarded for the management of bleeding peptic ulcer. It differs from other routines in that it includes liberal amounts of food from the beginning of the treatment. Iron medications and antacid-antispasmodic agents supplement the diet.

The Original Meulengracht Regimen.

"Purée Diet."

6 A.M. Tea, bread and butter

9 A.M. Oatmeal with milk, bread and butter

1 P.M. Main dishes—meat balls, timbales, broiled chops, omelet, fish balls, vegetable gratin, meat gratin, fish gratin, etc., mashed potatoes and vegetable purées

Soups

Puddings

3 P.M. Cocoa

6 P.M. Sliced meats, cheese, etc.

Bread and butter

Tea

The bread is white bread.

Patients are allowed as much as they wish.

Boyd and Schlachman (1938) have modified this procedure in the following manner:

Breakfast: Cream of Wheat, farina, Puffed Rice or strained cereal
Eggs any style, bacon, white bread toasted with crust removed
tea or coffee with milk or cream and sugar

Lunch: Baked macaroni and cheese or buttered spaghetti and creamed eggs on toast; egg salad sandwiches (mixture of egg and mayonnaise only), cream cheese and jelly sandwiches; steamed rice; white bread and butter; custards, gelatin desserts, plain or flavored cornstarch pudding; coffee, tea, milk and sugar

: Cream soups; baked, boiled or mashed potatoes; puréed
ables (spinach, peas, carrots), white meat of chicken, scraped
lamb chops, roast lamb, white fish; white bread, butter,
rts and beverages as for lunch

Andresen Diet.—This procedure utilizes a gelatin-milk mixture for
agement of gastric hemorrhage.

Feedings After Gastric Hemorrhage.

For patients immediately after hematemesis

No feedings while patient is asleep

No ice, water or other drinks to be given

Water, beginning on fifth day, increasing amounts
starting with 1 ounce at a time

Mineral oil, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce each night, beginning on second
night

Iron and vitamin preparations as indicated

Gelatin-milk Mixture.

(To be given cool or warm.)

	Amount.	Carbo- hydrate.	Protein.	Fat.	Calories.
	30 gm.	..	27	..	100
	60 gm.	60	240
(20 per cent)	100 cc.	3	3	18	180
	900 cc.	36	27	27	550
		99	57	45	1000
					(approximately)

First and second days: 4 ounces every $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Third, fourth and fifth days: 5 ounces every 2 hours

Sixth and seventh days: 6 ounces every 2 hours

Add to each of four feedings one of the following:

1 soft-boiled or poached egg

3 ounces of cereal

Custard, jello or ice-cream

Eighth and ninth days: As above with 2 extras

added to each of three feedings

Tenth day and thereafter: Ulcer diet

Andresen Ulcer Diet.

Breakfast:

Milk, 1 glass

Real, full dish with cream and sugar

Egg, soft-boiled or poached

Bread or toast and butter

Fruit juice (at end)

Morning:

Milk, 1 glass (with added cream and glucose, if desired)

Crackers, bread, cake or jello

Andresen Ulcer Diet.—Continued.*Luncheon:*

Milk, 1 glass
 Egg, soft-boiled or poached or cream cheese
 Potato, baked or mashed or plain spaghetti
 Vegetables, strained or mashed
 Bread and butter
 Pudding, jello, ice-cream or stewed fruit

Mid-afternoon:

Same as mid-morning

Supper:

Same as breakfast or luncheon

At bedtime (and during night every two and a half hours if awake)
 Same as for mid-morning

Salt is permitted but no other condiment
 The drinking of at least 6 glasses of water per day is insisted upon
 Olive oil, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce three times daily before feedings is usually prescribed and mineral oil $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce at bedtime
 Vitamins, iron, calcium and phosphorus are added as indicated

New York Post-Graduate Hospital.—The procedure used for ulcer cases is as follows:

Routine Ulcer Management:

1. Bathroom privileges
2. Weigh the patient at the beginning of the treatment and weigh thereafter
3. Antacid and other medications are not routine but ordered individually for each patient
4. Aspirations are to be ordered individually as necessary

Suggestions for Service:

1. The eggs may be used with milk and cream, as eggnog, or soft-boiled
2. The cereal may be *Cream of Wheat*, farina or strained rolled oats
3. The puréed peas may be added to the milk and cream and heated as a cream soup
4. The orange juice should be strained and either added to the milk or diluted with one-half water
5. The pudding may be cornstarch, rice, tapioca or baked custard
6. A small amount of sugar may be used with the cereal and the eggnogs
7. Water is allowed as desired between meals but none with meals

8 A.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream	+ an egg	+ an egg	+ an egg	+ an egg	+ an egg	+ an egg	+ an egg	+ an egg
9 A.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 3 T. cereal	+ 3 T. cereal
10 A.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ an egg	+ an egg
11 A.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 3 T. puréed peas	+ 3 T. puréed peas
12 noon	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 3 T. mashed potatoes	+ 3 T. mashed potatoes
1 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 2 T. orange juice	+ 4 T. orange juice
2 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 3 T. cereal	+ 3 T. pudding
3 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 3 T. cereal	+ 3 T. cereal
4 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ an egg	+ an egg
5 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ an egg	+ 3 T. cereal
6 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream							+ 3 T. cereal	+ 3 T. pudding
7-8-9-10 P.M.	$\frac{1}{2}$ glass milk and cream								

One-half glass of equal parts of milk and 20 per cent cream is given hourly from 8 A.M. to 10 P.M. for the twenty-eight day period.

Dietary Management:

1. For a period of twenty-eight days, feedings are given from 8 A.M. to 10 P.M. as shown in Table 35.
2. For twenty-one days all food is served from the ward pan as shown on schedule (p. 555).
3. Starting with the twenty-second day, breakfast, dinner, supper are served from the diet kitchen and hourly feed of milk and cream are continued from the ward pan. This diet follows:

Breakfast: 8 A.M.

Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
 Soft-boiled, poached or scrambled egg
 Toast with butter
 One-half glass strained orange juice
 Milk or weak coffee with cream and sugar

Intermediate feedings: 9 A.M., 10 A.M., 11 A.M.

One-half glass of milk and cream

Lunch: 12 NOON.

Cream soup
 Scraped beef, minced lamb, chicken or fish
 Baked or mashed potato
 Vegetable purée
 Bread with butter
 Custard, cornstarch, rice or tapioca pudding
 Milk or weak tea with cream and sugar

Intermediate feedings: 1 P.M., 2 P.M., 3 P.M., 4 P.M.

One-half glass of milk and cream

Supper: 5 P.M.

Macaroni, noodles, rice or cereal with butter
 Soft-boiled, poached or scrambled egg
 Bread with butter
 Custard, pudding or fruit purée
 Milk or weak tea with cream and sugar

Intermediate feedings: 6 P.M., 7 P.M., 8 P.M., 9 P.M., 10 P.M.

One-half glass of milk and cream

Bridges' "Convalescent Ulcer" Diet.—Generally, in mild ulcer strictly measured diet is not at all necessary. The practitioner must bear in mind the general underlying principle and prescribe diet compatible with the presenting conditions.

In general, the following foods should be positively *forbidden*:

Alcoholic beverages
 Beans, baked
 Beef extracts
 Bouillon
 Bran
 Bran-mixed cereals

Broccoli
 Broths
 Brussels sprouts
 Cabbage
 Candy, except hard candies
 Canned meats and fish

ated beverages	Onions
p	Paprika
y	Pastry
sauce	Peppers, red and green
r, except as flavoring	Pickled foods
e substitutes	Pickles
ommé	Pies, fruit
mbers	Raw fruits
ve	Rhubarb
l foods	Salt meats
juice, except as advised	Sauerkraut
ly seasoned foods	Spices and seasonings
rolls, muffins, etc.	Stock soups
s	Tomatoes, raw and cooked
uce	Turnips
tard	Vegetables, raw
	Vinegar

andy list of *advised foods* to be given for interval feedings as
er case progresses can be assembled from the following:

ad pudding, plain	Eggnogs
termilk	Fermented milks
omalt	Gruels
ocolate beverages	Ice-cream
tage cheese	Junket
ckers and milk	Malted milk
ckers and $\frac{1}{2}$ milk, $\frac{1}{2}$ cream	Milk shake
am	Milk toast
am cheese	Milk, $\frac{1}{2}$; cream, $\frac{1}{2}$
am soups	Ovaltine
stards	Rice

ese interval feedings may be given at midmorning, midafter-
or bedtime.

lowing is to be found a practical "convalescent ulcer" menu
is free from the recognized gastric irritants. This menu may
be utilized in post-operative ulcer cases. It is particularly
le for the ambulant patient.

Typical Menu.

fast:

oked cereal with cream and sugar
g, except fried, *or* crisp bacon
ast with butter
t milk flavored with coffee and sugar
nge juice

Typical Menu.—*Continued.**Luncheon:*

Meat, fish or eggs
 Potatoes, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti or vegetables
 butter
 Puréed vegetable
 Bread with butter
 Puréed fruit
 Milk

Dinner:

Cream of vegetable soup
 Meat or fish
 Potato
 Puréed vegetable
 Bread with butter
 Simple dessert
 Milk

NOTE.—Smoking or other uses of tobacco should be stringently prohibited. Needless to say, alcoholic beverages or foods containing alcohol should never be prescribed. Refer to Bland Foods and Simple Foods for further details.

UNDERWEIGHT.

Discussion.—The building-up of the individual who is underweight in the absence of disease resolves itself into an analysis not only of the previously observed dietetic regimen, but also of the daily habits. If the underweight ingests food of sufficient caloric value to maintain above a maintenance level and at the same time too rapid catabolism of this food is prevented, weight will be gained. The correction of improper habits, nervous exhaustion, irregular hours and meals, excessive exercise, excessive smoking and the commonly presented mental anorexia, will all tend to aid the purpose to be accomplished. Very frequently it is impractical and might be detrimental to completely correct all these irregularities at the outset, but, in general, a more prompt result will be accomplished by their eradication.

Hospitalization, as a rule, particularly in a general hospital, is not proved satisfactory. The admittance to a sanitarium or nursing home has been found to be productive of better results. The immediate institution of a diet excessively high in caloric intake, in the majority of cases, is detrimental and frequently provokes a distaste for food which later is difficult to overcome.

Under an ideal regimen the prescribed caloric intake should vary between 4000 and 5000 Calories *per diem*. The carbohydrate content should represent about 2000 Calories or more. Proteins should be offered to the amount of about 100 grams. The balance can readily be obtained by the infiltration of fats.

mainstay of the diet is milk, cream, butter, bacon, breads and staples of high caloric value, such as peas, lima beans, rice, spaghetti, etc. The addition to the diet of concentrated foods such as malted milk, dried milks and olive oil, at times helpful.

Because of the fact that a high caloric intake is desired, all the food should be concentrated in order to obviate excessive volumetric intake. Refer to **Foods Lowest in Water.**

Several feedings at mid-morning, mid-afternoon and bedtime are helpful, particularly when sufficient caloric value is not taken at regular meal-times.

Low-caloric vegetables
Carbonated beverages
Clear soups

Oversweet foods
Pickles

Various salad greens may be used as a garnish.

Food as dietary supplements:

Ice cream	Soda fountain items, as
Chocolate	Milk shakes
Sauces	Malted milk with egg
Ice cream	Sundaes

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Hot milk
Cooked whole grain cereal with cream and sugar
Whole grain toast or rolls with butter and marmalade
Hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar or cocoa

Mid-morning:

Hot milk

Lunch:

Hot milk
Cream of vegetable soup
Steak, fish or eggs
Cooked vegetable with extra butter
Hot milk, vegetable or cheese salad with oil dressing
Whole grain bread with butter
Cooked fruit with cream
Hot milk or cocoa

Mid-afternoon:

Hot milk juice with lactose, sweet crackers

Typical Menu.—Continued.*Dinner:*

Meat or fish
 Potato with extra butter
 Cooked vegetable with extra butter
 Whole grain bread with butter
 Simple dessert
 Milk

Bedtime:

Eggnog or milk with buttered crackers

NOTE.—Butter, cream, olive oil, syrups and jams and marmalade should be infiltrated into the diet wherever possible.

The requisite liquid content *per diem* is to be derived from liquids of caloric value such as milk, orange juice, orange albumen, chocolate made with milk, etc. Water, as such, should be used as little as possible.

Suggestions.—In those patients in whom there is a mental allergic intolerance to milk this can frequently be overcome by peptonization or acidulation. The prescription of Fermillac, Zoco and other specially prepared milks furnishes variety and at the same time sufficient caloric value to be practical.

Frequently, the author has found it of value, particularly in the course of long-standing cases, to allow the patient one day a week of freedom from diet. During this day the patient may choose whatever is desired, both in respect to quality and quantity.

Exercise should not be omitted but should be prescribed in moderation. Walking is most universally satisfactory. Golf, when available, is excellent if not indulged in to excess. The institution of calisthenic exercises and massage for general body tone can frequently meet all requirements.

In the reduction and the building of weight, the mental attitude of the patient is primarily essential for success. Repeatedly, European spas show magnificent results in the care of American citizens. This can be attributed to the isolation dependent on several thousand miles from business and domestic cares, companionship offered others desirous of accomplishing the same purpose and the general inability, on the part of the patient, to practise non-observance without falling from caste. These conditions, with few exceptions, do not prevail in this country.

Increasing Weight With Insulin.

JAMES J. SHORT, M. D.

Use in Non-diabetic Patients.—Whether used in diabetic or non-diabetic cases, insulin tends to increase weight. This is probably due, in part at least, to the increased appetite which it engenders. Under its influence in the non-diabetic a greater amount of food is almost certain to be consumed. This fact has led to its use

ment for a number of years in cases of malnutrition. In 1927, after published a preliminary report of his experience in this. In one case reported after insulin was begun there was an increase from 61 pounds to 90 pounds in a period of approximately six weeks. All previous attempts to increase weight in this patient together failed. Such results are not unusual. Cases which have been thus treated in this country and abroad range from simple anorexia, psychasthenia and mental disorders to grave organic conditions, such as tuberculosis and the rapidly wasting diseases of old age. Reports generally have been favorable although occasional failures have been recorded.

Longer experience with insulin in the attempt to force nutrition indicates that early temporary success may be expected. A gain of more than 10 lbs. in the first week or two is not uncommon. After that the patient usually becomes refractory and fails to respond to even in doses of 40 units daily. This is probably explained by a reduction in the amount of insulin produced by the patient's pancreas, a state of latency having been induced by the substitutive therapy. Periodic interruption in the treatment will often prevent this undesirable development and lend greater success to the procedure.

Diet.—It is essential to take fullest advantage of the hunger induced by the insulin. For this purpose, a food mixture in which there is a large proportion of fat would seem logical. As a relatively small amount of sugar is sufficient to antidote promptly the effect of insulin and thus inhibit the food craving, it would seem that in the attempt to increase weight a food combination low in sugar but of a high-caloric value in relation to weight and bulk should be selected. Such a diet capitalizes on the intense hunger to the greatest extent by inducing the subject to partake of a large amount of high-calorie-producing foods. In the majority of underweight cases it is probably not an alteration of metabolism which is desired primarily, but rather the ingestion of a larger amount of food. At the same time there is evidence to indicate that a more rapid and complete absorption of food from the alimentary tract is brought about.

Usage of Insulin.—Experience has indicated that it is better to give the insulin about one-half hour before each meal in order to allow time for hunger to develop, as this interval usually produces an intense food craving without other alarming symptoms associated with hypoglycemia. The patient should always be warned, however, of what these symptoms are and how to combat them, as in the treatment of diabetes.

Although good results were usually obtained with the use of ordinary insulin, this was not universally the case in the writer's experience. Much better and more consistent results have been obtained, however, with the use of protamine-zinc insulin. An average dose is 20 units before breakfast.

Maintaining Weight.—It seems to be a relatively simple matter to maintain weight once it has been acquired. A better habit of eating has been established during the insulin period, and the patient will

usually continue to ingest sufficient food to hold the increase necessary, an occasional short course of insulin therapy for this purpose may be given. When the appetite is markedly limited it has been found beneficial to restrict all fluids to calorie-bearing liquids only.

Effects on General Metabolism.—Bailey found no increase in the metabolic rate after insulin, although an increase in the respiratory quotient was commonly observed. This indicated an increased oxidation of carbohydrate. A decrease in liver glycogen has been found by MacLeod in normal animals after the administration of insulin. It must be remembered, however, that there is a reciprocal relationship between the glycogen stores in liver and muscle, so that a decrease in one usually means an increase in the other. In the case of diabetics, there is good reason to believe that insulin does increase the total glycogen stores in the body, and that later these are in part converted into fat.

UPPER RESPIRATORY CONDITIONS.

ARTHUR NILSEN, M.D.

Discussion.—The importance of healthy, well-nourished tissue as defensive barriers to infections of the upper respiratory tract and ears has long been a matter of common knowledge. It has been only of late years, however, that the discoveries of the vitamins with the ensuing exhaustive experimental and clinical research into their properties has focused the attention of the oto-laryngologist on the importance of diet. This is especially true in relation to the infections of the sinuses and ears in children. Dean, Stucky, Shurly and others have demonstrated conclusively that dietary deficiencies, especially in vitamins A and D, are predisposing factors of the utmost importance in the incidence and persistence of acute and chronic sinusitis and otitis in children. More recently vitamin-C deficiency has been demonstrated in many cases of otitis media. Refer to *Vitamins and The Vitamin Deficiencies*.

The correction of dietary errors alone, has proved of no avail in the treatment of chronic infections of this type, and likewise nasal therapy and surgery by themselves are futile and ineffective in the presence of dietary insufficiency. It is imperative that the oto-laryngologist and the internist realize the importance of coöperation in these cases. Satisfactory results are obtainable only by proper local treatment and careful dietary regulation. When this applies to chronic infections, Dean and Daniels have demonstrated clinically that cases of incipient nasal infections can be favorably affected by a vitamin-rich diet. Although the previous data on this subject apply only to children, it is undoubtedly true that similar considerations obtain in adults but to a lesser degree.

Experiment has shown that the most important protective foods are the natural whole grains, milk, eggs, green vegetables and fruits. Stucky and Daniels suggested the following as a satisfactory diet for a child suffering from chronic sinusitis: 1 quart of milk a day

bles (not potatoes), cereals, 3 fruits, 1 of which is raw, meat for older children. If there are definite signs of vitamin deficiency, 1 or 2 teaspoonfuls of cod-liver oil are added. This gives as a sample diet: 1 quart of milk a day; 1 or 2 eggs, 1/2 cup of vegetables, fruit juices and fruits; 1 tablespoonful of butter with each meal, meat or fish once a day for older children and addition of cod-liver oil or a concentrated preparation of vitamins A and D. Refer to the High Vitamin Diet (p. 48).

Infections.—Acute infections of the nose, throat and ear, in which the swallowing mechanism is not affected, offer no particular problems and are handled in the same way as similar infections elsewhere. When difficulty in swallowing is present, as in *acute tonsillitis*, *streptococcal infections*, *peritonsillar abscess* and similar conditions in which ulceration, infiltration and abscess formation interfere with deglutition by pain or mechanical obstruction, both, proper nourishment becomes an important factor in the successful handling of the case. Every effort must be made, especially in cases of long standing, to supply a diet balanced as to carbohydrates, fats and proteins in sufficient amounts to satisfy the caloric needs of the individual. Due to the toxemia and pain attendant when swallowing, these patients are usually without desire for food. Unless rigid supervision of diet and insistence on an adequate minimum are made imperative, resistance is lowered by dehydration and dehydration. If a twenty-four-hour check-up is made, it is surprising to see how little fluid and nourishment many patients receive. The result is a lowering of the powers of resistance which may well lead to an unfavorable outcome or at least prolong the infection and delay convalescence.

Fluids are the easiest form of nourishment to swallow. It is often found that semi-solids are as readily taken. A suitable diet consists of beef juice; beef, lamb or chicken broth; eggs, cream in the form of eggnogs or custards; carbohydrates in vegetable soups, blanc-mange, cereals, gruels and honey; fats as butter and cream. Milk as such is often distasteful since it lingers on mucous membranes and leaves an after-taste, but in various combinations it is an important item. Cold foods are better taken than hot. Ample fluid water is imperative. Refer to Fluid Foods and Soft

Pain of ulcerated mucous membranes may be relieved by the use of non-toxic local anesthetics, such as orthoform, or anesthesia before feeding, in the form of lozenges or insufflation. Weak solutions of cocaine may be used guardedly, if the need is urgent. The Trendelenburg position, in which the patient lies with his head over the foot of the bed and sucks food through a tube from a container below, is of value in painful ulceration at the base of the tongue and larynx. Pressure over the ears and sides of the neck and the palms of an assistant during the act of swallowing may give

In more severe cases feeding by tube is necessary. This may be accomplished by a stomach or duodenal tube, passed through the mouth in the

usual way, into the esophagus or stomach. A nasal tube, which is often better borne, may be used and may be left *in situ* between feedings.

In all throat infections there is a marked tendency toward a dirty mouth and coated tongue and teeth, which must be kept clean by frequent and careful swabbing of the mouth and scraping of the tongue with a piece of whalebone, especially before feedings. Dry lips are treated with cold cream or vaseline, not glycerin.

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:

Fruit juice or puréed fruit
Cooked cereal with cream and sugar
Soft-cooked egg
Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

Luncheon:

Cream of vegetable soup
Minced meat
Puréed vegetable
Puréed fruit
Milk or cocoa

Dinner:

Strained soup
Minced meat
Mashed potato
Puréed vegetable
Soft dessert
Milk or coffee with cream and sugar

Chronic Infections.—Chronic conditions presenting dietary problems are those complicated by dysphagia due to ulceration, tumor mass, stricture or combinations of these, to which may be added diphtheritic paralyses, spasmodic and paralytic neuroses of various origins. The commoner diseases presenting these conditions are tuberculosis, syphilis, malignancies of various types; traumatic strictures of the esophagus, etc. In general, the principles of feeding in acute infections also apply here. Adequate caloric intake is vital, as inanition and toxemia are usually present. The nasal feeding tube is invaluable in severe cases and in the most advanced conditions gastrostomy for feeding purposes must be considered. Refer to Artificial Feeding, also Esophageal Stenosis.

Pre-operative Diet.—The general surgical principles of preparation for anesthesia are the same in oto-rhinologic cases as in surgery elsewhere. Due to the fact that in certain cases, however, difficulty in post-operative swallowing may seriously limit the amount of fluid and food ingested for a time, special pre-operative preparations are necessary. This is especially true of children predisposed to

osis, in whom a diet rich in carbohydrates is indicated prior to laryngectomy. In addition, 50 cc. of glucose in 200 cc. of orange juice may be given in divided doses during the twenty-four hours of anesthesia and may be repeated afterwards if symptoms of hypoglycemia are present.

For major operations, such as laryngectomy, it is imperative that patients undergo a thorough preoperative metabolic study, and that appropriate dietary and therapeutic measures be instituted to correct metabolic imbalance before operation. Patients in this category are frequently in poor condition, due to inanition, toxemia, and their natural powers of resistance are at best much diminished, and everything possible must be done to send them to the operating table with a maximum chance for recovery. The diet should be one which is low in fats and high in carbohydrates. Refer to Pre-operative and Post-Laryngectomy Diet.

Post-operative Diet.—Following tonsillectomy in children, the child may take cool water freely as soon as the anesthetic has worn off. Four or five hours later, if vomiting is not present, food is given. Milk in every form is generally withheld for the first twenty-four hours. The diet can usually then be rapidly advanced, depending on the amount of gastric disturbance, as children seldom complain of difficulty in swallowing. In adults, however, dysphagia is usually severe and for several days the diet must consist of fluids and semi-solids. Heat is more desirable than cold.

Raw, unflavored milk is often distasteful as it leaves an unpleasant after-taste and clings to the raw surfaces. Egg-nogs, cream, custards, cereals, jellies, purées and soups, lemon and limeade with whites of eggs form the base of a satisfactory diet. Refer to Liquid Foods and Soft Foods for further elaboration.

Following the laryngectomy and other major operative procedures, constant insistence on adequate caloric and fluid intake. Feeding at first is by nasal catheter which is introduced into the esophagus at the time of operation and usually remains *in situ* for two weeks or more. Food is, of course, in liquid form and is introduced into the tube by syringe or funnel. Refer to Supplementary Methods of Feeding. After the gastric disturbance following anesthesia is allayed, a full diet as suggested under acute conditions is instituted and maintained as far as gastric tolerance permits. A basic daily minimum of various food elements is planned as follows: the juice from 1 pound of beef, $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of orange juice, 1 quart of milk, 2 eggs and 1 pint of cooked cereal. The maintenance of the patient's strength and resistance by a full, balanced diet is a factor as important as the skillful operation. It must not be forgotten that the important element, sodium chloride, should be added, particularly where a natural thirst is lacking. Additional fluid is most readily available as egg-whites.

UREMIA.

Refer to page 249.

URIC-ACID DIATHESIS.

Discussion.—By uric-acid diathesis is meant the presence of increased blood uric acid, with or without demonstrable manifestations.

The time-worn adage of “too much acid in the blood” began to lose its popularity coincident with the advent of blood chemistry. Many were the symptoms that were attributed to “too much acid in the blood,” until proper blood uric-acid analysis was available. Since that time the multiplicity of symptoms attributed specifically to an increase of blood uric acid has diminished.

However, in “uric-acid diathesis” the blood uric acid alone is increased coincident with the normal maintenance of other blood factors, *i. e.*, urea nitrogen, non-protein nitrogen, creatinine, etc. It is well recognized that the first blood element to be elevated in the system, in the presence of renal insufficiency, is uric acid, and one must differentiate between uric-acid diathesis and incipient renal disease.

The abnormal increase of uric acid in the human body is attributable to overingestion of nucleins, impaired renal function, faulty metabolism of the same or a combination of the latter two. Uric acid is derived from purin bodies which are linked to proteins. These purin bodies exist in many of our foods, especially those of animal origin. Nevertheless, the human body is capable of producing its own purin body derivatives while on a purin-free diet.

However, no definite offending cause has been determined for the accumulation of uric acid in human tissues. By some, its accumulation has been attributed to selected renal retention, by others to faulty hepatic metabolism. The addition of exogenous purins contributes to uric-acid retention.

The mode of origin of uric acid from nucleic acid through purin bases is as follows:

Purins undergoing metabolism in the body may be derived either (1) from the nucleoprotein of body tissue or (2) from the food which may contain both nucleoproteins and free purins. Sometimes the term “endogenous uric acid” is applied to that fraction having former origin, while “exogenous uric acid” indicates that fraction which is directly due to the food. The endogenous uric acid in the urine of a man of average size usually amounts to about 0.3 to 0.6 gram per day; the exogenous varies from mere traces to 1 or even 2 grams, according to the kind or amount of food consumed. On an ordinary mixed diet the total excretion of uric acid by the kidneys averages about 0.6 to 0.7 gram per day. The usual daily range is about 0.5 to 1 gram of uric acid per day, in which case the uric acid nitrogen constitutes about 1 to 3 per cent of the total nitrogen of the urine.

The foods highest in purin bodies are of animal origin. The more multinuclear the animal food, the higher the purin content is thought to be. The purin content of foods may be said to vary directly with their specialization of function. For example brain

and liver have been demonstrated as being higher in purin than that of muscle. Beef-tea, stock soups and meat contain the same kind of purin and extractives but in a concentrated form than the substances from which they come. Cereals, especially of the seed variety, as lentils and asparagus, are relatively high both in purin bodies and amino-acids. Coffee, tea and chocolate contain methylated purins the fate of which is somewhat controversial. Although coffee and tea have been considered inadvisable, there is generally little objection to cocoa or chocolate.

In view of the fact that the solubility of uric acid in water is relatively low, but is increased in alkaline media and reversely so in acid media, it is advisable to institute a purin-free alkaline-ash diet. Additionally, the dietary regulation should be such that it is associated with a general flushing by fluids of an alkaline nature. The primary offending factor in the accumulation of uric acid in the human body is the ingestion of alcohol. Differentiation has been attempted by continental authorities, wherein they lay the blame on alcohol contained in hard liquors and sanction the moderate ingestion of certain wines. This view has not been accepted by American investigators.

The dietetic treatment of uric-acid diathesis consists of low-purin, low-fat, moderate protein, and high-carbohydrate intake.

Foods Practically Purin-free.

Casein	Gelatin
cream	Milk
Eggs, fresh	Most vegetables
Fruits	Processed cereals

Foods Low in Purins.

Asparagus	Celery
Canned meats, separated from fluid	Onions
	String beans

Foods Moderately High in Purins.

Booths	Muscle tissues of meat, fish.
Legumes	poultry
Spinach	Spinach
Yeast	Yeast

Foods Outstandingly High in Purins.

Glandular organs

Typical Menu.

Breakfast:
 Fruit
 Cereal with milk and sugar
 Toast or rolls with butter
 Milk or hot milk flavored with coffee and sugar or cocoa

Typical Menu.—(*Continued.*)*Luncheon:*

Cream of vegetable soup

Choice: potato, macaroni, noodles, rice, spaghetti *or* vermicelli
with butter

Cooked vegetables

Salad

Bread with butter

Fresh *or* stewed fruit

Milk

*Dinner:*Eggs *or* boiled meat or fish

Potato

Cooked vegetable

Salad

Bread with butter

Choice: custard, junket, gelatin; cornstarch, rice, sago, tapioca
pudding

Milk

Suggestions.—It is recommended that the fluid intake per day be increased and be augmented by some authentic alkaline water. In overweight patients those foods of high caloric value should be replaced by those with a lower caloric yield.

UROLOGIC DISEASES

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Discussion.—Certain systemic ailments among which are metabolic errors, the imbalance of concentration of various salts in the tissue fluids, the water content of the body, as well as specific urinary tract disease including calculosis and bacterial invasion may be benefitted by proper dietotherapy. In general, too, one must not forget that the kidney has a significant part in the dietary management of all diseases.

General Principles

Fluid output is one of the two basic functions of the kidney. Normal urinary output varies from 1200 to 3000 cc. daily, depending upon fluid intake. Thus, water is seen to be a diuretic in its own right. Dehydration must be prevented in any disease, and may be overcome by providing fluid administered by mouth or parenterally. In frequent association with urologic disease, there is nitrogen retention in the blood resulting from renal functional impairment. In such cases of azotemia, it is not only important to increase the urinary output as a method of excreting blood non-protein nitrogen but it is also important to reduce the protein intake temporarily. In azotemia, the diet should contain only the minimum amount of protein to maintain nitrogen equilibrium, *i. e.*, 40 grams per day.

remainder of the caloric requirement may consist of a larger carbohydrate intake. When normal renal function has been restored at least 70 grams of protein should be given daily (normal requirement = 1 gram per kilogram of body weight).

The same principles must be adhered to in giving amino acids (in hydrolysate) either by mouth or parenterally as a substitute for adequate protein intake. Thus when employing hydrolyzed protein in cases where renal functional impairment and nitrogen retention are present, not more than 1 liter of the 5 per cent solution (50 gms.) should be given until such time that the kidneys can handle their normal burden.

Regulation of Salts.—The kidneys regulate the acid content (all except carbonic acid which is excreted through the lungs) and the alkaline content of the body. This change in the acid-base balance of the body fluids is accomplished by change in the acidity of the urine—when blood acidity increases, a more acid urine is excreted thus eliminating both organic and inorganic acid radicles. Conversely, when there is an increase in the blood alkalinity, a more alkaline urine is excreted. Such delicate balance is accomplished for the most part by varying the amount of acid or basic phosphate excreted in the urine. Fixed base is saved for body fluids by the excretion of an acid urine, and by a second mechanism, the renal excretion of ammonia as a substitution product for fixed base. The urinary acidity can range from the pH extremes of 4.6 to 8.0; within this range the kidneys can, by their selective action, excrete excess acid, excrete excess alkali, or retain fixed base for the body by the manufacture of ammonia.

Digested food has either acid or base forming qualities depending on whether acid (SO_4 , PO_4 , Cl and organic acid radicles) or whether basic (Na , K , Ca , Mg) radicles predominate in the ash or the residue resulting from metabolic processes. Generally, meats, and cereals tend to be "acid-ash" while fruits and vegetables leave a basic residue—"alkaline-ash." However, the relationship between food and urinary reaction are not exact—the pH of the urine throughout the twenty-four hours of the day is quite variable although fluctuating at a mean of about pH6. It is quite difficult, or perhaps impossible, to maintain a constant given pH either by food or by drugs, particularly when there is renal parenchymal disease, urinary infection especially in the latter cases where urea-splitting organisms are present and ammonia is produced through the

decomposition of urea $[\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2 \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{CO}_2 + 2\text{NH}_3]$. For these

reasons, the pH of the separate kidney urines and the bladder urine may vary widely especially in unilateral renal problems. However, it must be remembered that increasing the fluid intake tends to raise the urinary pH, while limiting fluids tends to lower the pH (increase the acidity).

Urinary reaction may be altered by drugs or by diet, or by both combined. For acidification of the urine, drugs generally employed

are sodium acid phosphate (2 grams daily) or ammonium chloride (2 to 6 gms. daily). The acid-ash diet (see below) is preferable to the so-called "ketogenic diet" because the latter is so unpalatable and unacceptable to the patient. For alkalization of the urine potassium citrate (2 to 4 grams daily) or sodium bicarbonate (4 to 6 grams daily) is used; an alkaline-ash diet is employed as an adjunct to this end.

Urinary Sedimentation and Calculus Formation.—Stone-forming salts which are only slightly soluble in the urine remain in solution because of a number of interdependent factors. A so-called "colloidal protective mechanism" has been postulated to explain the urinary solubility of crystalloids, but more recent investigation has shown that the solubility factors of salts are dependent upon the acidity of urine, urinary volume, the concentration of sodium chloride and other neutral salts together with certain other mechanisms which are at present unknown. Of these, the most important factors are the acidity of the urine and urine volume. Surely the best prophylactic in the prevention of urinary sedimentation and stone formation is a large urine output and a resultant dilute urine.

When crystalloids precipitate in the urine producing a sediment (phosphaturia, uraturia, cystinuria and oxaluria), some change in the urine solubility factors has occurred. This means that there need not necessarily be an increase in the concentration of these salts; one (or more) of the solubility factors has been altered to produce the abnormal precipitation.

Phosphaturia.—An alkaline urine which is quite turbid may be passed in perfectly healthy persons. The cloudiness disappears entirely when the urine is acidified. The turbidity in these cases is due to calcium and magnesium phosphates which have been precipitated because of excess excretion. Treatment of this condition is relatively simple: acidification of the urine by an acid-ash diet (q. v.) and acidifying medication, and by increasing the urine volume through increasing the fluid intake.

Uraturia.—The precipitation of uric acid or its salts (sodium, potassium and ammonium) occurs only in an acid urine. Crystal characteristic of this condition may be found on microscopic examination of the urine. Pure uric acid calculi are not visible on the x-ray film and, consequently, diagnosis of their presence is difficult. However, at times showers of uric acid crystals can produce renal colic; such a possibility must not be overlooked clinically. Moreover, the blood uric acid level is generally of no diagnostic value for it is rarely increased in these cases.

In the treatment of this urinary uric acid precipitation, a low purin diet is prescribed (see Gout) in addition to making the urine either alkaline or "less acid" by increasing alkaline residue food (milk, fruits, vegetables). Moreover, alkali medication should be administered.

Cystinuria.—Cystinuria is due to a rather rare disease of metabolism in which cystine, an amino-acid contained in practically all protein foods, is not oxidized and must, therefore, be excreted in

line. Diagnosis is made by finding the characteristic crystals in the urine sediment. Inasmuch as cystine is readily soluble in an alkaline medium, the obvious therapeutic approach is alkalinization of the urine. Enough medication, such as bicarbonate of sodium, must be given so that the urine will give an alkaline reaction on litmus paper throughout the day. Inasmuch as the formation of cystine stones in these patients occurs not infrequently, such a measure is of great prophylactic importance. Needless to say, protein intake cannot be eliminated, but it should be reduced to a level consistent with basic needs from the standpoint of body maintenance.

Oxaluria.—Oxaluria indicates the excretion of excess calcium oxalate in the urine; it is recognized by finding the typical crystals of needle-shaped or dumb-bell shape in the urine. Their presence in the formation of urinary stones is not infrequent. The source is both endogenous and exogenous, *i. e.*, even when all oxalate-containing foods are eliminated from the diet, these crystals still persist in the urine and their exact source is obscure. Calcium oxalate will precipitate in both acid and alkaline urines and, consequently, alteration of the urinary acidity is of no significant help. However, if the exogenous source of oxalates is removed, the endogenous amount can be readily carried by the urine without precipitation. The primary regulation of oxaluria, therefore, consists of omitting all foods rich in oxalates and in increasing urinary output. Those foods richest in oxalates are:

Beet Tops	Spinach	Black Tea
Swiss Chard	Cocoa	Chocolate
Parsley	Figs	
Rhubarb	Ground Pepper	
Foods which contain no oxalic acid are:		
Sugars	Peeled Turnips	Radishes
Fats	Sweet Cherries	Peas
Starches	Grapes (Seedless)	Apples
Cauliflower	Grapefruit	Avocados
Water Cress	Lemon and Lime	Green Squash
Cucumbers	Juice	Nectarines
Mangoes	Melon	Green Gage Plums

Urinary Calculosis

Although the last definitive word is yet to be said concerning the etiology of stones in the urinary tract, three factors are generally recognized to be of great importance in the formation and growth of these stones: (1) stasis of urine, because of an obstruction to flow, fosters precipitation of the urinary salts; (2) urinary infection, especially where the urinary pH is altered (urea-splitting organisms), affects the solubility of the urinary salts and furthers their precipitation; (3) a dietary or metabolic factor which includes an improperly balanced diet and inadequate fluid intake. Thus in the prophylaxis or treatment of urinary stones, all three factors

must be considered, and one must: (1) overcome stasis by removing the obstructive lesion if such is present; (2) combat and eradicate the infection; (3) adjust and balance the diet according to the type of calculus present. This dietary therapy is particularly applicable where surgical removal of a calculus has been performed and the exact chemical composition is known so that specific foods may be eliminated and balance made. Where operation has not been performed, the analysis of the stone may be shrewdly guessed at by the radiographic appearance of the calculus and determination of the type of crystals found in the urine.

Vitamin deficiencies probably contribute to the formation of calculi: the effect of vitamin A on epithelial surfaces is well-known and an adequate amount must be ingested in order to keep the urinary mucous membrane in good condition. The incidence of urinary stones in such areas as India or China where diet deficiency is widespread is too well-known to require more than mention. Moreover, even in our own country, attention has often been called to the frequent occurrence of urinary stone following peptic ulcer therapy and the concomitant dietary restrictions involved.

Composition of Stones.—In order to intelligently treat calculi disease, the various stones must be individualized and approached from the point of view of their composition. The following classification is widely employed:

I. Organic stones

A. Cystine stones

B. Uric acid and urate stones

II. Primary calcium stones

A. Calcium oxalate stones

B. Calcium phosphate and calcium carbonate stones

III. Stones containing magnesium. These stones are "mixed" and frequently contain calcium, phosphates and oxalates and contain lesser or greater amounts of ammonium and magnesium salts. They are frequently found in the presence of an infection due to urea-splitting bacterial organisms.

I. **Organic Stones.**—A. *Cystine stones.* These are treated in the same fashion as the problem of cystinuria (q. v.).

B. *Uric acid and urate stones.* These calculi are generally non-radiopaque and present difficulties in diagnosis. Unlike the situation present in gout wherein one finds an excess of uric acid in the blood and little uric acid excretion in the urine, the presence of urate stones is infrequently associated with an elevated blood uric acid level. From the clinical standpoint, urine which is strongly acid is an important etiologic consideration in the formation of uric acid stones. Medical (*i.e.* dietary) treatment of these stones consist of:

(1) Low Purin Diet (see Gout) includes elimination of such purin-rich foods as liver, kidney, sweetbreads.

(2) Alkalinization of the urine by a combination of an alkaline ash diet (*q.v.* below) and by administration of bicarbonate of sodium.

II. **Primary Calcium Stone.** An excess excretion of calcium in the urine no matter how produced will cause the formation of the

stone in the urinary tract. These causes of hypercalcaemia include such entities as hyperparathyroidism, acidosis, hypernatremia, bone rarefaction resultant from prolonged immobilization of the limbs in orthopedic problems. Hyperparathyroidism is a frequent cause of calcium stones, having been estimated to account for from .1 to .5 per cent of all cases of calcium stones in the urinary tract. This problem must, of course, be considered in the differential diagnosis of any case of extensive or recurrent urinary stone formation.

Calcium Oxalate Stones.—Calculi may be composed partly or wholly of calcium oxalate. The comments previously made concerning oxaluria are applicable here; where a low-oxalate diet is indicated, the endogenous oxalate can be handled readily. However, needless to say, the low-oxalate diet should nevertheless be adequate in calories, vitamins, calcium and phosphorus. Where the stone contains phosphates and carbonates as well as oxalates, it may be necessary to prescribe a low-oxalate, acid-ash diet.

Calcium Phosphate and Carbonate Stones.—These are by far the most frequent of all calculi found in the urinary tract. Inasmuch as phosphates precipitate in an alkaline urine, the formation of these stones is favored by a persistently alkaline urine, especially when the latter is due to infection as by a urea-splitting organism. On this foundation, therefore, one can influence stone formation, stone recurrence or stone growth by altering the pH of the urine; this is the basis for the so-called "acid-ash diet." By ingesting a diet which tends to produce an acid residue, the urine will tend to remain on the acid side and thus prevent precipitation of phosphates which would occur were the urine alkaline.

This, however, is not always accomplished and frequently the results are discouraging because of a number of considerations. Dependence must be placed on the pH value of the bladder urine rather than on the pH of the urine as voided, as is well known, the divided kidney urine specimens and the bladder urine may differ widely in disease. Furthermore, the diseased kidney may be unable to produce a highly acid urine and the effect of the acid-ash diet would be impractical. Moreover, a kidney containing a stone may precipitate a different urinary salt with a change in reaction of the urine. Nevertheless, though the acid-ash diet is no substitute for operation, it may have considerable palliative effect in non-operative cases.

When such an acid-ash diet is prescribed, the urine should be kept at an optimum pH of 5.2 to 5.4 throughout the day and urinary buffers added if the diet is unable to achieve these levels alone (e.g., ammonium chloride). Although it is quite true that such an acid diet increases the urinary calcium excretion, nevertheless calcium phosphate will not precipitate if the urine is maintained on the acid side.

The medical regimen in control of these stones consists of the following: (1) eliminate infection, particularly if urea-splitting organisms are present (the latter produce an alkaline reaction in the urine); (2) prescribe an acid-ash diet (see below); (3) add urinary

acidifiers; (4) increase urinary output by increasing fluid intake.

III. Stones Containing Magnesium.—An associated correlation between magnesium metabolism and the presence of magnesium-containing calculi has never been established. There is no clinical or experimental evidence to indicate any particular factor etiologic in respect to the finding of this mineral. Magnesium phosphate or magnesium-ammonium-phosphate may be found in stones called "mixed" stones. The principles which apply to the diet management of calcium stones above, apply here as well: elimination of infection, acid-ash diet, a balanced and adequate intake of both minerals and vitamins.

Acid-Ash Diet (modified from Higgins)

Fundamentally, this diet is so arranged that it offers a high vitamin content, an adequate protein and mineral intake and yet furnishes an acid residue. The latter may range from 15 to 25 cc. and thus may be altered to fit the circumstances where a particular urinary pH is arrived at easily or with difficulty. Foods must be salt-free and the total excess base from fruits and vegetables should not exceed 25 cc. per day.

Foods which are to be used daily:

Meat—beef, chicken, ham (fresh), lamb, liver, heart, kidney, veal, fish, oysters and poultry. (Four oz. servings twice a day.)

Eggs—2

Bread—whole wheat, 5 slices

Cereal—any kind, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup

Miscellaneous—spaghetti, macaroni, rice or corn, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup

Milk—1 pint

Cream— $\frac{1}{4}$ cup

Fruits & Vegetables—choice of 5, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup each (see list - excess base not to exceed 25 cc.)

Yeast—2 cakes

Cod Liver Oil—2 tablespoonfuls, or haliver oil - 2 capsules before each meal

Wheat Germ—2 tablespoonfuls to be added to cereal

SUGGESTED PLAN OF MENU

SAMPLE MENU

Breakfast

Fruit
Cereal & wheat germ
Eggs
Whole wheat bread
Salt-free butter
Beverage
Cream
Sugar

Orange juice, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Oatmeal, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Eggs
Whole wheat bread, 2 slices
Butter
Coffee or tea
Cream, $\frac{1}{4}$ cup
Sugar

STANDARD PLAN OF MENU

SAMPLE MENU

or substitute (miscellaneous) table or salad whole wheat bread free butter Baked apple, 1 small Milk, 1 glass	Lamb chops, 2 or 3 Steamed rice, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup Tomatoes, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup Whole wheat bread, $1\frac{1}{2}$ slices Butter Baked apple, 1 small Milk, 1 glass
vegetables (cooked raw) whole wheat bread free butter Tapioca cream pudding Milk, 1 glass	Roast Beef String beans, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup Onions, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup Whole wheat bread, $1\frac{1}{2}$ slices Butter Tapioca cream pudding Milk, 1 glass

SELECTED FRUITS AND VEGETABLES FROM THIS LIST

Fruit	Amount	cc. of excess basic ash
Cantaloupe	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.7
Apples	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.7
Pears	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup 1 medium	3.6
Oranges	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup 1 small	3.7
Grape juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	3.9
Apple juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	4.1
Cherry juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	4.4
Orange juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	4.5
Raspberry juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	4.9
Strawberry	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup 1 medium	5.0
Blackberry	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup 1 medium	5.5
Pineapple	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup $\frac{1}{2}$ large	5.6
Orange	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup 1 medium	5.6
Strawberries	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	6.1
Peaches	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	6.8
Apple	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	6.8
Cantaloupe	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	8.6
Strawberry	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	8.6
Vegetable	Amount	cc. of excess basic ash
Carrots	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	0.8
Green peas	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	1.3
Beans	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	1.5
Tomato	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup cooked	1.5
Corn	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.7
Onions	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.8
Spinach	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.9
Mushrooms	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup canned	4.0
Cauliflower	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	5.3
String beans	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	5.4
Tomatoes	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	5.6

CHOOSE FRUITS AND VEGETABLES FROM THIS LIST

Vegetable	Amount
Cabbage	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup (raw $1\frac{1}{2}$ cups)
Tomato juice	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Sweet potatoes	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup $\frac{1}{2}$ medium
White potatoes	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup $\frac{1}{2}$ medium
Lettuce	$\frac{1}{4}$ head
Celery	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Cucumbers	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Rutabaga	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup cooked
Carrots	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Beets	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup

AVOID—VERY HIGH IN EXCESS BASE

Almonds	Dried fruits and vegetables
Molasses	Dandelion greens
Spinach	Parsnips
Beet greens	Figs
Olives	Raisins

In addition, the following ACID AND NEUTRAL FOODS may be used AS DESIRED:

ACID FOODS	NEUTRAL FOODS
Cranberries	Sweet butter
Flour	Candy— <i>no chocolate bars</i>
Plain cookies	Cornstarch
Pastry with custard or allowed amounts of fruit filling	Lard
Unsalted peanuts	Olive oil
Unsalted popcorn	Salad oil
Unsalted crackers	Mayonnaise
English walnuts	Sugar
	Tapioca
	Coffee
	Coffee (with caffeine removed, <i>e. g.</i> Kaffee Hag, Sanka)
	Postum

Alkaline-Ash Diet

In many cases, a diet adequate in vitamins, minerals and protein must be provided with, however, the total alkaline-ash exceed the total acid-ash. From the list of fruits and vegetables given above, any combination may be selected, but the total excess base ash should amount to at least 38 cc. daily.

SUGGESTED PLAN OF MENU

SAMPLE MENU

Breakfast

Fruit	Orange juice, $\frac{1}{2}$ glass
Cereal	Farina, $\frac{2}{3}$ cup, cooked
Egg	1 Egg
Whole wheat toast	1 slice
Butter	1 Pat
Cream	Cream, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup
Milk	Milk, 1 glass

STANDARD PLAN OF MENU

SAMPLE MENU

Meat	Lamb, 1 serving
Potato	Baked potato
Vegetable	Celery
Bread	Whole wheat toast, $\frac{1}{2}$ slice
Butter	Butter
Milk	Milk, 1 glass
Fruit	Canned peaches
Meat	Roast beef, 1 serving
Potato	Sweet potato, 1 serving
Vegetable	Cauliflower, 1 serving
Bread	Whole wheat toast, $\frac{1}{2}$ slice
Butter	Butter
Milk	Milk, 1 glass
Dessert	Vanilla ice cream
P. M. Milk	Milk, 1 glass

Substitutions:

Meat—Beef, chicken, cheddar cheese, eggs (2), frankfurters (2), lamb, ham (fresh), beef heart, lamb chop, lamb roast, beef liver, blue mackerel, oysters (3 large), pork chop (1), salmon (fresh or canned), trout, turkey (2 slices), veal chop, veal roast, white fish.

Cereal—Cornflakes or puffed wheat or puffed rice (1 cup), oatmeal or rice ($\frac{1}{2}$ cup), farina ($\frac{2}{3}$ cup), shredded wheat ($\frac{1}{2}$ biscuit).

Vegetables—See listing in Acid-Ash Diet.

In addition, the following alkaline and neutral foods may be used as desired:

ALKALINE FOODS

Dairy products including
all cheeses
soups except when made
from meat stock
Almonds
Molasses
Olives

NEUTRAL FOODS

Sweet butter
Candy (no chocolate)
Cornstarch
Lard
Salad oil
Sugar
Coffee
Tea
Postum
Olive oil
Mayonnaise
Tapioca

The following foods, because of their very high acid-ash content, should be omitted:

Meat broths
Bread and crackers except as
listed
All pastries and rich desserts
Cranberries
Peanuts
Walnuts
Popcorn
Flour

In conclusion, the relationship of diet therapy to calculus disease of the urinary tract may be expressed as follows:

1) When diet is inadequate (as in avitaminosis A) or unbalanced (as in excess intake of citrus fruits producing an alkaline urine), stone formation may follow.

(2) Dissolution of calculi cannot be accomplished by diet alone but increase of size of these stones may be prevented by diet therapy which is directed at the specific stone composition.

(3) The greatest benefit from dietary treatment is in the prevention of calculus reformation after operative intervention and removal.

Urinary Tract Infection

In general, it has been empirically determined that in any type of infection of the urinary tract, from the kidney down to the urethra, there are certain foods which act as irritants to the already inflamed urinary tract. In particular, alcohol may stir up a low grade or latent infection and cause an acute flare-up of symptoms. Such can happen with overindulgence of alcoholic intake in prostatitis where at times sufficient prostatic congestion is produced to cause complete urinary retention. Similarly, symptoms of cystitis may become extreme following intake of alcohol. Direct renal irritation by alcohol ingestion has never been definitely proved, but it is generally assumed that such renal parenchymal irritation does occur.

Condiments, which include bottle sauces, catsup, ginger, horse radish, mustard, pepper, spices and vinegar have been held since immemorial to produce irritation to the urologic tract. No explanation is offered as to the reason for such an action, but an infection from subacute urethritis to pyelonephritis will show an unfavorable clinical reaction within twenty-four hours after ingestion of these condiments.

Treatment of Renal Infection.—For the most part, chemotherapy and the use of anti-biotics have almost completely replaced dietary therapy in the treatment of urinary infection. The ketogenic diet, once a stand-by in therapy of pyelonephritis, is of interest for historical reasons only. Nevertheless, diet can be useful as an adjuvant in the management of kidney infections.

Treatment of pyelonephritis consists of several approaches (1) chemo- or antibiotic therapy; (2) correction of all urinary stasis and establishment of proper drainage; (3) increasing the urine output by forcing fluids, thus diluting and eliminating bacterial toxins; (4) diet regulation.

The correct choice of urinary antiseptics depends upon the exact infecting organism and the selection of sulfadiazine or sulfathiazole, penicillin or streptomycin must be determined by the particular bacteria present and their susceptibility to the various antiseptics available. When mandelic acid is employed (this drug is especially efficacious in *E. coli* and *streptococcus fecalis* infections), the urinary pH should be between 5 and 5.4. This can be achieved by the use of the acid-ash diet and urinary acidifiers such as ammonium chloride. Conversely, where sulfonamides are employed, the urine should be kept on the alkaline side because of the greater solubility of these drugs where the pH is 7.0 or above. In such cases, the alkaline-ash

together with administration of bicarbonate of soda can be of great value as adjuvant.

Fluid intake should be maintained between 3,000 and 4,000 cc. in order to insure an adequate urinary output even if it is necessary to give such fluids parenterally. This is of primary importance when sulfonamides are administered in order to prevent precipitation of crystals in the renal tubules and pelvis. In distinct contrast to this, when mandelic acid is given, in order to achieve a highly acid urine of approximately pH 5.2, fluids must be reduced to 1000 or 1200 cc. daily; such a condition is of great advantage especially when the patient is quite febrile and, therefore, this drug has fallen into disuse with the introduction of other therapeutic measures now available.

In the early stages of acute pyelonephritis, the diet should be composed of liquid or semi-solid food. When the patient has improved somewhat and is better able to tolerate foods, the adjuvant or alkaline-ash diets may be employed as indicated. The acid-diet, while producing no bactericidal agents in the urine, aids in rendering the urine highly acid, thereby inhibiting the growth of bacteria.

VINCENT'S INFECTION

Refer to page 481.

XANTHOMA.

Refer to page 314.



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APPENDIX.

MARJORIE R. MATTICE, M.S

INTRODUCTION.

TRITIONAL demands of the body vary with age, sex, height and weight and with the sum total of activity during the twenty-four hours.

The variations of age are most significant during the periods of childhood and youth, and require greater recognition than in the mature years.

The variations in caloric requirement with change in activity have been elucidated by Sherman. When asleep, the adult needs 0.9 Calories per pound per hour. Lying still in bed requires 0.9 Calories, whereas resting in a sitting position necessitates the expenditure of 1.0 Calories. Five to 15 extra Calories are utilized when standing. Sedentary occupations involve a caloric output of 0.9 to 1.0 Calories per pound of body weight per hour. The energetic requirement for light housework rises to 1.3 Calories per pound or 1.3 Calories per hour for a 70-kg. adult. Carpenters, painters, and artisans average 1.5 Calories per pound. Heavy work or severe exercise entails energy expenditures from 2 to 4 Calories per pound. Use of the following tabulation, the calories per pound per hour (estimated from the foregoing from the type of activity involved) may readily be converted into similar data per kilogram (pounds) or, what is more practicable, into the total calories expended by a 125-pound (57-kg.) or 154-pound (70-kg.) adult per hour.

Cal./lb.	Cal./kg.	Cal./125 lbs.	Cal./70 kg.
0.50	1.10	65	77
0.75	1.66	94	115
1.00	2.20	125	154
1.25	2.75	156	193
1.50	3.30	190	231
1.75	3.85	219	272
2.00	4.40	250	308
2.50	5.50	316	385
3.00	6.60	375	452
3.50	7.70	440	539
4.00	8.80	500	616

TABLE 36.--Height, Weight and Age. --Boys.

	Average height, inches.	Average weight, pounds.		Average height, inches.	Average weight, pounds.
Under 1 month	21½	9½	8 mos., under 9	27½	19
1 mo., under 2	22½	10½	9 mos., under 10	28½	19½
2 mos., under 3	23½	12½	10 mos., under 11	28½	20
3 mos., under 4	24½	14½	11 mos., under 12	29	20½
4 mos., under 5	25½	15½	1 year	29½	21
5 mos., under 6	26½	16½	2 years	33½	26½
6 mos., under 7	26½	17½	3 years	36½	30½
7 mos., under 8	27½	18½	4 years	38	34

Height, inches.	5 years.	6 years.	7 years.	8 years.	9 years.	10 years.	11 years.	12 years.	13 years.	14 years.
38	34	34								
39	35	35								
40	36	36								
41	38	38	38							
42	39	39	39	39						
43	41	41	41	41						
44	44	44	44	44						
45	46	46	46	46	46					
46	47	48	48	48	48					
47	49	50	50	50	50	50				
48	52	53	53	53	53				
49	55	55	55	55	55	55			
50	57	58	58	58	58	58	58		
51	61	61	61	61	61	61		
52	63	64	64	64	64	64	64	
53	66	67	67	67	67	68	68	
54	70	70	70	70	71	71	72
55	72	72	73	73	74	74	74
56	75	76	77	77	77	78	78
57	79	80	81	81	82	83
58	83	84	84	85	85	86
59	87	88	89	89	90
60	91	92	92	93	94
61	95	96	97	99
62	100	101	102	103
63	105	106	107	108
64	109	111	113
65	114	117	119
66	119	122
67	124	128
68	134
69	137
70	143
71	148

* As prepared by Bird T. Baldwin and Thomas D. Wood, and accepted by the American Medical Association.

TABLE 37.—Height, Weight and Age.—Girls.

	Average height, inches.	Average weight, pounds.		Average height, inches.	Average weight, pounds.
1 month . . .	20½	8½	8 mos., under 9 . . .	27½	17½
under 2 . . .	21½	10½	9 mos., under 10 . . .	27½	18½
under 3 . . .	23½	11½	10 mos., under 11 . . .	28½	19
under 4 . . .	24	13	11 mos., under 12 . . .	28½	19½
under 5 . . .	24½	14½	1 year	28½	20
under 6 . . .	25½	15½	2 years	33½	25½
under 7 . . .	26½	16½	3 years	36½	29½
under 8 . . .	26½	17½	4 years	38	33

	5 years.	6 years.	7 years.	8 years.	9 years.	10 years.	11 years.	12 years.	13 years.	14 years.
. . .	33	33								
. . .	34	34								
. . .	36	36	36							
. . .	37	37	37							
. . .	39	39	39							
. . .	41	41	41	41						
. . .	42	42	42	42						
. . .	45	45	45	45	45					
. . .	47	47	47	48	48					
. . .	49	50	50	50	50	50				
.	52	52	52	52	53	53			
.	54	54	55	55	56	56			
.	56	56	57	58	59	61	62		
.	59	60	61	61	63	65		
.	63	64	64	64	65	67		
.	66	67	67	68	68	69	71	
.	69	70	70	71	71	73	
.	72	74	74	74	75	77	78
.	76	78	78	79	81	83
.	80	82	82	82	84	88
.	84	86	86	88	93
.	87	90	90	92	96
.	91	95	95	97	101
.	99	100	101	105
.	104	105	106	109
.	110	110	112
.	114	115	117
.	118	120	121
.	124	124
.	128	130
.	131	133
.	135
.	136
.	138

As prepared by Bird T. Baldwin and Thomas D. Wood, and accepted by The
 rican Medical Association.

TABLE 38.—Average Weights of Men With Clothes.

Age.	5'	5' 1"	5' 2"	5' 3"	5' 4"	5' 5"	5' 6"	5' 7"	5' 8"	5' 9"	5' 10"	5' 11"	6'	6' 1"	6' 2"	6' 3"	6' 4"
15 . . .	107	109	112	115	118	122	126	130	134	138	142	147	152	157	162	167	171
16 . . .	109	111	114	117	120	124	128	132	136	140	144	149	154	159	164	169	174
17 . . .	111	113	116	119	122	126	130	134	138	142	146	151	156	161	166	171	176
18 . . .	113	115	118	121	124	128	132	136	140	144	148	153	158	163	168	173	178
19 . . .	115	117	120	123	126	130	134	138	142	146	150	155	160	165	170	175	180
20 . . .	117	119	122	125	128	132	136	140	144	148	152	156	161	166	171	176	181
21 . . .	118	120	123	126	130	134	138	141	145	149	153	157	162	167	172	177	182
22 . . .	119	121	124	127	131	135	139	142	146	150	154	158	163	168	173	178	183
23 . . .	120	122	125	128	132	136	140	143	147	151	155	159	164	169	175	180	185
24 . . .	121	123	126	129	133	137	141	144	148	152	156	160	165	171	177	182	187
25 . . .	122	124	126	129	133	137	141	145	149	153	157	162	167	173	179	184	189
26 . . .	123	125	127	130	134	138	142	146	150	154	158	163	168	174	180	186	191
27 . . .	124	126	128	131	134	138	142	146	150	154	158	163	169	175	181	187	192
28 . . .	125	127	129	132	135	139	143	147	151	155	159	164	170	176	182	188	193
29 . . .	126	128	130	133	136	140	144	148	152	156	160	165	171	177	183	189	194
30 . . .	126	128	130	133	136	140	144	148	152	156	161	166	172	178	184	190	196
31 . . .	127	129	131	134	137	141	145	149	153	157	162	167	173	179	185	191	197
32 . . .	127	129	131	134	137	141	145	149	154	158	163	168	174	180	186	192	198
33 . . .	127	129	131	134	137	141	145	149	154	159	164	169	175	181	187	193	199
34 . . .	128	130	132	135	138	142	146	150	155	160	165	170	176	182	188	194	200
35 . . .	128	130	132	135	138	142	146	150	155	160	165	170	176	182	189	195	201
36 . . .	129	131	133	136	139	143	147	151	156	161	166	171	177	183	190	196	202
37 . . .	129	131	133	136	140	144	148	152	157	162	167	172	178	184	191	197	203
38 . . .	130	132	134	137	140	144	148	152	157	162	167	173	179	185	192	198	204
39 . . .	130	132	134	137	140	144	148	152	157	162	167	173	179	185	192	199	205
40 . . .	131	133	135	138	141	145	149	153	158	163	168	174	180	186	193	200	206
41 . . .	131	133	135	138	141	145	149	153	158	163	168	174	180	186	193	200	207
42 . . .	132	134	136	139	142	146	150	154	159	164	169	175	181	187	194	201	208
43 . . .	132	134	136	139	142	146	150	154	159	164	169	175	181	187	194	201	208
44 . . .	133	135	137	140	143	147	151	155	160	165	170	176	182	188	195	202	209
45 . . .	135	135	137	140	143	147	151	155	160	165	170	176	182	188	195	202	209
46 . . .	134	136	138	141	144	148	152	156	161	166	171	177	183	189	196	203	210
47 . . .	134	136	138	141	144	148	152	156	161	166	171	177	183	190	197	204	211
48 . . .	134	136	138	141	144	148	152	156	161	166	171	177	183	190	197	204	211
49 . . .	134	136	138	141	144	148	152	156	161	166	171	177	183	190	197	204	211
50 . . .	134	136	138	141	144	148	152	156	161	166	171	177	183	190	197	204	211
51 . . .	135	137	139	142	145	149	153	157	162	167	172	178	184	191	198	205	212
52 . . .	135	137	139	142	145	149	153	157	162	167	172	178	184	191	198	205	212
53 . . .	135	137	139	142	145	149	153	157	162	167	172	178	184	191	198	205	212
54 . . .	135	137	139	142	145	149	153	158	163	168	173	178	184	191	198	205	212
55 and over	135	137	139	142	145	149	153	158	163	168	173	178	184	191	198	205	212

Actuarial Society of America, "Medical Impairment Study," 1929.

NOTE.—Deduct 1 inch for shoes and 8 pounds for clothes to determine nude weight.

TABLE 39.—Average Weights of Women With Clothes.

	4' 8"	4' 9"	4' 10"	4' 11"	5' 1"	5' 2"	5' 3"	5' 4"	5' 5"	5' 6"	5' 7"	5' 8"	5' 9"	5' 10"	5' 11"	6'
. 101	103	105	106	107	109	112	115	118	122	126	130	134	138	142	147	152
. 102	104	106	108	109	111	114	117	120	124	128	132	136	139	143	148	153
. 103	105	107	109	111	113	116	119	122	125	129	132	137	140	144	149	154
. 104	106	108	110	112	114	117	120	123	126	130	134	138	141	145	150	155
. 105	107	109	111	113	115	118	121	124	127	131	135	139	142	145	151	155
. 106	108	110	112	114	116	119	122	125	128	132	136	140	143	147	151	156
. 107	109	111	113	115	117	120	123	126	129	133	137	141	144	148	152	156
. 107	109	111	113	115	117	120	123	126	129	133	137	141	145	149	153	157
. 108	110	112	114	116	118	121	124	127	130	134	138	142	146	150	153	157
. 109	111	113	115	117	119	121	124	127	130	134	138	142	146	150	154	158
. 109	111	113	115	117	119	121	124	128	131	135	139	143	147	151	154	158
. 110	112	114	116	118	120	122	125	128	131	135	139	143	147	151	155	159
. 110	112	114	116	118	120	122	125	129	132	136	140	144	148	152	155	159
. 111	113	115	117	119	121	123	126	130	133	137	141	145	149	153	156	160
. 111	113	115	117	119	121	123	126	130	133	137	141	145	149	153	156	160
. 112	114	116	118	120	122	124	127	131	134	138	142	146	150	154	157	161
. 113	115	117	119	121	123	125	128	132	135	139	143	147	151	154	157	161
. 113	115	117	119	121	123	125	128	132	136	140	144	148	152	155	158	162
. 114	116	118	120	122	124	126	129	133	137	141	145	149	153	156	159	162
. 115	117	119	121	123	125	127	130	134	138	142	146	150	154	157	160	163
. 115	117	119	121	123	125	127	130	134	138	142	146	150	154	157	160	163
. 116	118	120	122	124	126	128	131	135	139	143	147	151	155	158	161	164
. 116	118	120	122	124	126	129	132	136	140	144	148	152	156	159	162	165
. 117	119	121	123	125	127	130	133	137	141	145	149	153	157	160	163	166
. 118	120	122	124	126	128	131	134	138	142	146	150	154	158	161	164	167
. 119	121	123	125	127	129	132	135	138	142	146	150	154	158	161	164	167
. 120	122	124	126	128	130	133	136	139	143	147	151	155	159	162	165	168
. 120	122	124	126	128	130	133	136	139	143	147	151	155	159	162	166	169
. 121	123	125	127	129	131	134	137	140	144	148	152	156	160	163	167	170
. 122	124	126	128	130	132	135	138	141	145	149	153	157	161	164	168	171
. 122	124	126	128	130	132	135	138	141	145	149	153	157	161	164	168	171
. 123	125	127	129	131	133	136	139	142	146	150	154	158	162	165	169	172
. 123	125	127	129	131	133	136	139	142	146	151	155	159	163	166	170	173
. 124	126	128	130	132	134	137	140	143	147	152	156	160	164	167	171	174
. 124	126	128	130	132	134	137	140	143	147	152	156	161	165	168	172	175
. 125	127	129	131	133	135	138	141	144	148	152	156	161	165	169	173	176
. 125	127	129	131	133	135	138	141	144	148	152	157	162	166	170	174	177
. 125	127	129	131	133	135	138	141	144	148	152	157	162	166	170	174	177
. 125	127	129	131	133	135	138	141	144	148	152	157	162	166	170	174	177
. 125	127	129	131	133	135	138	141	144	148	153	158	163	167	171	174	177
er . 125	127	129	131	133	135	138	141	144	148	153	158	165	167	171	174	177

rial Society of America, "Medical Impairment Study," 1929.

—Deduct 1½ inches for shoes and 4 pounds for clothes to determine nude weight.

WIDTH-WEIGHT TABLES.*

CHILDREN 1 TO 16 YEARS—ADULTS 17 TO 24 YEARS

The publishing of the Width-Weight Tables by H. B. Pryor (1936), is felt by the author of this volume to offer the profession one of the most intelligent tables procurable for the establishment of a proper concept of *expected weight*.

Quoting from Pryor, "Many investigators have shown, however, that 'normal' weight, as determined by the generally accepted standards of average weight for sex, height and age, fails to give adequate information concerning individual nutritional status. . . . Many children and young adults who impress the examiner as being properly nourished appear considerably underweight or overweight when judged by height-weight-age standards.

"Determination of appropriate body weight as an index of nutrition should take into account not only the factors of sex, height and age but also the nature of the bony framework and the body structure. The individual with large skeletal structure tends to be broad and to have heavy muscle tissues (to support the heavy frame), while the individual with a small skeleton tends to be slender and to have light muscle structure.

" . . . Following a study of various body measurements which might be used in indices of body build, the bi-iliac diameter or width of the pelvic crest was selected as the most important and least variable measurement of body width. This measurement is not variable with posture or respiration, and, since the landmarks are definite, it requires no special measuring technique.

"The bi-iliac diameter is best measured from the front with straight-arm sliding calipers pressed firmly against the widest flange of the iliac crest. This measurement when divided by the standing height times 1000 yields the width-length index which expresses width of the body in percentage of standing height or relative width.

"The relationship between relative width of the body (as measured by the width-length index) and body weight was found by mathematical analysis of measurements on 10,000 children and young adults. Data on each person were plotted with unit deviation from the mean width-length index for age and sex as abscissa. Correlations between relative width and weight were found to be different for the various age groups. For the age range 17 to 24 years the correlations and standard deviations were as follows:

<i>Men.</i>		<i>Women.</i>	
γ	$= +.343 \pm .032$	γ	$= +.415 \pm .037$
σ_y	$= 15.392$	σ_y	$= 16.616$
σ_x	$= 7.526$	σ_x	$= 8.213$

* This material has been reprinted with the generous consent of the author, Helen B. Pryor, M.D. and the publisher, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California.

gression formula $y = \left(\gamma_{xy} \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x} \right) x$ was applied to express deviation in terms of width deviation. When x = the unit deviation from mean width-length index for the age-sex group, y = deviation from mean weight in pounds for height and age referred to medico-actuarial tables, and γ = the coefficient of correlation between x and y , the values of y are $.70_x$ for men and $.84_x$ for women. For ages 6 to 16 years the regression formula applied to data for each age-sex group separately showed the value of y to vary with age. The width-length index becomes relatively less variable as weight increases with weight in younger children.

Width-weight tables were constructed from this data in such a way as to offer a range of seven *normal* weights for each height depending upon the width of the iliac crest. In the tables provided, the average width of the iliac crest for each age is shown above the central one of the columns of figures which represent average weight for average height. The central column of figures represents the medico-actuarial table of average weights for age and height. Starting from this central column in each case, the three columns to the right represent, respectively, 5, 7, and 10 per cent heavier than the central column, while those to the left represent, respectively, 5, 7 and 10 per cent lighter than the central column. The bicristal diameters heading the various columns were found by applying the regression formula factors.

For ages 6 to 16 years, the central column represents the Balderson-Wood average weights for age and height; and the columns (in order from it) on right side represent, respectively, 7, 10, and 15 per cent heavier (left) and 7, 10, and 15 per cent lighter (right) than the average. Since there is greater variability in physical measurements in the period of rapid growth between 6 and 16 years than in the ages either above or below it, a wider range of width is included in the tables for these years."

It is recognized that the mathematics involved in the elaboration of Tables 40 to 43 is beyond the ready comprehension of the average statistician. This fact, however, need deter none from their use since such mathematical knowledge is not required for reading the tables. The data herewith presented is so practical as to render it well worth the inconvenience of the extra physical measurement. The use of these tables, naturally, is denied the average layman. It necessitates retention of the older type of table (Tables 36 to 39) for general purposes. It should be realized, however, that such tables are applicable only to those who approximate the standard weight for age.

Instructions.

The width of the iliac crest is shown in both inches and centimeters, since most instruments for measuring width are calibrated in centimeters. For height, inches alone are shown, since height is usually measured thereby. Width measurements should be done next to the skin. This is usually possible without completely undressing the patient. The weights recorded are without clothes. For school weighing with clothes, allow 1 pound for heights 38-40 inches and 2 pounds for heights above 40 inches.

Children who are extremely tall or extremely short for their chronological ages should be referred to the tables where the heights fall in the middle of the range. For example, if a boy, age seven years, is average height for age eleven, he often is found to be eleven years broad as well as eleven years tall. His developmental age is ahead of his chronological age. Judging an oversized or undersized child by standards for his developmental age does away with distortion at extremes of height within each age group.

To Use Table.

1. Take age of patient at nearest birthday.
2. Take height at nearest inch.
3. Measure with firm pressure the greatest width at the crest of the ilium, or bi-iliac diameter.
4. In the proper age table, opposite the height measurement and under the bi-iliac diameter measurement, will be found the appropriate weight in pounds for a patient of this body build. (If a bi-iliac diameter measurement falls between two column headings, it is necessary to interpolate.)

Example: A boy, aged 6 years, is 45 inches tall. His bi-iliac diameter is 16.4 cm. Consequently the appropriate weight for his body build is 40 pounds. Whereas if the same boy had a bi-iliac diameter of 21.6 cm., he should weigh 49 pounds.

Either sliding or spreading calipers may be used to measure the bi-iliac diameter.

TABLE 40. — WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR BOYS.

Ages: One to Eight Years.

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE ONE YEAR						AGE TWO YEARS							
4.6	4.8	5.1	5.4	5.6	5.8	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.7	6.1	6.3	6.5	
11.8	12.2	13.1	14.0	14.4	14.9	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.5	15.5	16.0	16.5	
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	17	18	19	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	30	19 $\frac{3}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{3}{4}$	22	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	23 $\frac{3}{4}$	24 $\frac{1}{4}$
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	19	20	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	31	20 $\frac{3}{4}$	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	21 $\frac{3}{4}$	23	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	25 $\frac{1}{4}$
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	19	20	21	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	32	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	25	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	26 $\frac{3}{4}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	21	22	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	33	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	26	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	22	23	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	34	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	25	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	27	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	29	29 $\frac{3}{4}$
21 $\frac{1}{4}$	21 $\frac{3}{4}$	23	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	35	26	26 $\frac{3}{4}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	29	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	32
22	22 $\frac{3}{4}$	24	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	25 $\frac{3}{4}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	36	27	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	33
24	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	26	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	37	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$
AGE THREE YEARS						AGE FOUR YEARS							
5.7	5.9	6.3	6.7	6.9	7.2	5.8	6.1	6.3	6.75	7.2	7.4	7.7	
14.4	14.9	16.0	17.1	17.6	18.2	14.8	15.5	16.0	17.2	18.4	18.9	19.6	
24	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	26	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	35	26	26 $\frac{3}{4}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	29	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	32
25	25 $\frac{3}{4}$	27	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	29	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	36	28	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	31	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	34
26 $\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	29	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	37	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$
28 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	31	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	34	38	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	33	34 $\frac{3}{4}$	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{1}{4}$
29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	39	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{3}{4}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	35	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$
30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	33	34 $\frac{3}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{4}$	40	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	36	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$
32 $\frac{3}{4}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	35	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	41	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{4}$	38	39 $\frac{3}{4}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{3}{4}$
33 $\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	36	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	35	36	37	39	41	42	43
						43	37	38	39	41	43	44	45
AGE FIVE YEARS						AGE SIX YEARS							
6.4	6.6	7.1	7.6	7.8	8.1	5.5	6.1	6.5	7.3	8.1	8.5	9.1	
16.3	16.8	18.1	19.4	19.9	20.6	13.9	15.4	16.4	18.5	20.6	21.6	23.1	
29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	38	26	28	29	32	35	36	38
31 $\frac{3}{4}$	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	34	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	39	27	29	30	33	36	37	39
32 $\frac{3}{4}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	35	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	28	30	31	34	37	38	40
33 $\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	36	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	41	30	32	33	36	39	40	42
35 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{4}$	38	39 $\frac{3}{4}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{3}{4}$	42	31	33	34	37	40	41	43
36	37	39	41	42	43	43	32	34	36	39	41	44	46
38	39	41	43	44	45	44	35	37	38	42	46	47	49
39 $\frac{3}{4}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$	43	45 $\frac{1}{4}$	46 $\frac{1}{4}$	47 $\frac{1}{4}$	45	37	39	40	44	48	49	51
41 $\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	48 $\frac{1}{4}$	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	46	38	41	42	46	50	51	53
						47	40	43	44	48	52	53	56
						48	42	44	46	50	54	56	58
						49	44	47	49	53	57	59	62
						50	46	49	51	55	59	61	63
AGE SEVEN YEARS						AGE EIGHT YEARS							
6.3	6.7	7.6	8.5	8.9	9.5	6.0	6.7	7.1	8.0	8.9	9.3	10.0	
16.1	17.1	19.3	21.5	22.5	24.1	15.3	17.0	18.0	20.3	22.6	23.6	25.3	
32	33	36	39	40	42	42	31	33	34	37	40	41	43
33	34	37	40	41	43	43	32	34	36	39	41	44	46
34	36	39	41	44	46	44	35	37	38	42	46	47	49
37	38	42	46	47	49	45	37	39	40	44	48	49	51
39	40	44	48	49	51	46	38	41	42	46	50	51	53
41	42	46	50	51	53	47	40	43	44	48	52	53	56
43	44	48	52	53	56	48	43	45	47	51	55	57	59
45	47	51	55	57	59	49	44	47	49	53	57	59	62
47	49	53	57	59	62	50	47	50	51	56	61	62	65
50	51	56	61	62	65	51	49	52	54	59	64	66	69
52	54	59	64	66	69	52	52	55	57	62	67	69	72
54	56	61	66	68	71	53	54	58	60	65	70	72	76
55	59	64	69	71	74	54	57	61	63	68	73	75	79
						55	59	62	65	70	75	78	81
						56	61	65	67	73	79	81	85

WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR BOYS.

Ages: Nine to Fourteen Years.

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE NINE YEARS

Height in inches	6.5	7.1	7.5	8.3	9.1	9.5	10.1
	16.6	18.1	19.0	21.1	23.2	24.1	25.6
45..	37	39	40	44	48	49	51
46..	38	41	42	46	50	51	53
47..	40	43	44	48	52	53	56
48..	43	45	47	51	55	57	59
49..	44	47	49	53	57	59	62
50..	47	50	51	56	61	62	65
51..	49	52	54	59	64	66	69
52..	52	55	57	62	67	69	72
53..	54	58	60	65	70	72	76
54..	57	61	63	68	73	75	79
55..	59	62	65	70	75	78	81
56..	62	66	68	74	80	82	86
57..	65	69	71	77	83	85	89
58..	68	72	75	81	87	90	94

AGE TEN YEARS

Height in inches	6.7	7.3	7.6	8.5	9.4	9.7
	17.0	18.5	19.4	21.6	23.8	24.7
47..	40	43	44	48	52	53
48..	43	45	47	51	55	57
49..	44	47	49	53	57	59
50..	47	50	51	56	61	62
51..	49	52	54	59	64	66
52..	52	55	57	62	67	69
53..	54	58	60	65	70	72
54..	57	61	63	68	73	75
55..	60	63	65	71	77	79
56..	63	67	69	75	81	83
57..	66	70	72	78	84	86
58..	69	73	76	82	88	91
59..	72	76	78	85	92	94
60..	75	79	82	89	96	99

AGE ELEVEN YEARS

Height in inches	7.1	7.7	8.0	8.8	9.6	9.9	10.5
	18.1	19.5	20.4	22.3	24.2	25.1	26.5
49..	44	47	49	53	57	59	62
50..	47	50	51	56	61	62	65
51..	49	52	54	59	64	66	69
52..	52	55	57	62	67	69	72
53..	54	58	60	65	70	72	76
54..	57	61	63	68	73	75	79
55..	60	63	65	71	77	79	82
56..	63	67	69	75	81	83	87
57..	66	70	73	79	85	88	92
58..	69	73	76	82	88	91	95
59..	72	77	79	86	93	95	100
60..	76	80	83	90	97	100	104
61..	78	83	86	93	100	103	108
62..	83	88	91	98	105	108	113
63..	87	92	95	103	111	114	119

AGE TWELVE YEARS

Height in inches	7.4	7.9	8.3	9.1	9.9	10.3
	18.8	20.2	21.1	23.1	25.1	26.0
50..	47	50	51	56	61	62
51..	49	52	54	59	64	66
52..	52	55	57	62	67	69
53..	55	59	61	66	71	73
54..	58	61	64	69	74	77
55..	60	64	66	72	78	80
56..	63	67	69	75	81	83
57..	66	70	73	79	85	88
58..	70	74	77	83	89	92
59..	73	78	80	87	94	96
60..	76	80	83	90	97	100
61..	79	84	87	94	101	104
62..	83	88	92	99	106	110
63..	88	93	96	104	112	115
64..	90	96	99	107	115	118
65..	95	100	104	112	120	124

AGE THIRTEEN YEARS

Height in inches	7.6	8.2	8.5	9.3	10.1	10.4	11.0
	19.2	20.7	21.6	23.6	25.6	26.5	28.0
52..	52	55	57	62	67	69	72
53..	55	59	61	66	71	73	77
54..	58	61	64	69	74	77	80
55..	60	64	66	72	78	80	84
56..	64	68	70	76	82	84	88
57..	67	71	74	80	86	89	93
58..	70	74	77	83	89	92	96
59..	73	78	80	87	94	96	101
60..	77	81	84	91	98	101	105
61..	80	85	88	95	102	105	110
62..	84	89	92	100	108	111	116
63..	89	94	97	105	113	116	121
64..	92	98	101	109	117	120	126
65..	97	103	106	115	124	127	133
66..	99	105	108	117	126	129	135
67..	103	109	113	122	131	135	141

AGE FOURTEEN YEARS

Height in inches	8.0	8.6	8.9	9.8	10.7	11.0
	20.3	21.8	22.7	24.9	27.1	28.0
54..	59	62	65	70	75	78
55..	60	64	66	72	78	80
56..	64	68	70	76	82	84
57..	68	72	75	81	87	90
58..	71	75	78	84	90	93
59..	74	79	81	88	95	97
60..	77	82	85	92	99	102
61..	82	87	90	97	104	107
62..	85	90	93	101	109	112
63..	89	95	98	106	114	117
64..	94	99	103	111	119	123
65..	98	104	107	116	125	128
66..	101	107	111	120	129	133
67..	106	113	117	126	135	139
68..	111	118	122	132	142	146
69..	114	121	125	135	145	149
70..	119	126	131	141	151	156
71..	123	131	135	146	157	161

WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR BOYS.

Ages: Fifteen and Sixteen Years.

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE FIFTEEN YEARS

AGE SIXTEEN YEARS

8.7 22.2	9.1 23.2	10.0 25.4	10.9 27.6	11.3 28.6	11.8 30.1		8.1 20.6	8.8 22.5	9.3 23.6	10.3 26.2	11.3 28.8	11.8 29.9	12.5 31.1
70	72	78	84	86	90	Height in inches	59	74	79	81	88	95	97
72	75	81	87	90	94		60	79	84	87	94	101	104
76	78	85	92	94	98		61	85	90	93	101	109	112
79	81	88	95	97	102		62	89	94	97	105	113	116
83	86	93	100	103	108		63	94	99	103	111	119	123
88	91	98	105	108	113		64	97	103	106	115	124	127
91	94	102	110	113	118		65	101	107	111	120	129	133
97	100	108	116	119	125		66	106	113	117	126	135	139
101	105	113	121	125	131		67	111	118	122	132	142	146
106	109	118	127	130	136		68	114	121	125	135	145	149
110	114	123	132	136	142		69	119	126	131	141	151	156
115	118	128	138	141	148		70	121	128	132	143	154	158
118	122	132	142	146	153		71	126	133	138	149	160	165
123	127	137	147	151	158		72	129	137	142	153	164	169
127	132	142	152	157	164		73	134	142	146	158	170	174
133	137	148	159	163	171		74	137	145	150	162	174	179
135	140	151	162	167	174								
139	144	155	166	171	179								
142	146	158	170	174	182								

TABLE 41.—WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR GIRLS.

Ages: One to Four Years.

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE ONE YEAR

AGE TWO YEARS

4.7 12.0	4.9 12.4	5.2 13.3	5.5 14.2	5.7 14.6	5.9 15.1		4.9 12.4	5.1 13.0	5.3 13.4	5.6 14.4	6.0 15.4	6.2 15.8	6.4 16.4
15½	16	17	18	18½	19	Height in inches	30	19	19½	20	21	22	22½
16½	17	18	19	19½	20		31	20¾	21¼	21¾	23	24¼	24¾
17½	18	19	20	20½	21		32	21½	22	22¾	24	25¼	25¾
18½	19	20	21	21½	22		33	22½	23	23½	25	26¼	26¾
19½	20	21	22	22½	23		34	23½	24	24¾	26	27¼	27¾
20½	21	22	23	23½	24		35	25	25¾	26½	28	29½	30¼
21¼	21¾	23	24¼	24¾	25¼		36	27	27¾	28½	30	31½	32¼
							37	28	28¾	29½	31	32½	33¼

AGE THREE YEARS

AGE FOUR YEARS

5.6 14.3	5.8 14.8	6.2 15.9	6.6 17.0	6.8 17.5	7.1 18.1		5.9 15.1	6.1 15.6	6.3 16.1	6.8 17.3	7.3 18.5	7.5 19.0	7.7 19.5
23	23¾	25	26¼	26¾	27½	Height in inches	35	26	26¾	27½	29	30½	31¼
24	24¾	26	27¼	27¾	28½		36	27	27¾	28½	30	31½	32¼
25	25¾	27	28¼	29	29¾		37	28	28¾	29½	31	32½	33¼
26¾	27½	29	30½	31¼	32		38	29¾	30½	31¼	33	34¾	35½
27¾	28½	30	31½	32½	33		39	30½	31½	32¼	34	35¾	36½
28¾	29½	31	32½	33¼	34		40	32½	33½	34¼	36	37¾	38¾
30½	31¼	33	34¾	35½	36¼		41	33¼	34¼	35¼	37	38¾	39¾
31½	32¼	34	35¾	36½	37½		42	35	36	37	39	41	42
32½	33¼	35	36¾	37½	38½		43	36	37	38	40	42	43

WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR GIRLS

Ages: Five to Ten Years

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE FIVE YEARS

Height in inches	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.9	7.4	7.6	7.8
	15.2	15.8	16.4	17.6	18.8	19.4	20.0
36	28	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	31	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	34
37	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	32	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$
38	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	33	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{4}$
39	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	34	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	37 $\frac{1}{2}$
40	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	36	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$
41	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	37	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{3}{4}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$
42	35	36	37	39	41	42	43
43	37	38	39	41	43	44	45
44	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	38 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{3}{4}$	42	44 $\frac{1}{4}$	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	46 $\frac{1}{4}$

AGE SIX YEARS

Height in inches	5.5	6.0	6.4	7.2	8.0	8.2
	13.9	15.3	16.2	18.3	20.4	21.1
38	26	27	28	31	34	35
39	26	28	29	32	35	36
40	28	30	31	34	37	38
41	29	31	32	35	38	39
42	31	33	34	37	40	41
43	32	34	35	39	41	42
44	33	35	37	40	43	44
45	36	38	39	43	47	48
46	37	40	41	45	49	50
47	40	43	44	48	52	53
48	42	44	46	50	54	55
49	43	46	48	52	56	57
50	45	48	50	54	58	59

AGE SEVEN YEARS

Height in inches	5.6	6.3	6.6	7.5	8.4	8.7	9.4
	14.3	15.9	16.8	19.0	21.2	22.1	23.7
40	28	30	31	34	37	38	40
41	29	31	32	35	38	39	41
42	31	33	34	37	40	41	43
43	32	34	36	39	41	44	46
44	33	35	37	40	43	45	47
45	36	38	39	43	47	48	50
46	37	40	41	45	49	50	53
47	40	43	44	48	52	53	56
48	42	44	46	50	54	56	58
49	44	46	48	52	56	58	61
50	45	48	50	54	58	60	63
51	48	51	52	57	62	63	66
52	51	54	56	61	66	68	71
53	54	57	59	64	69	71	74

AGE EIGHT YEARS

Height in inches	6.0	6.7	7.1	8.0	8.9	9.3
	15.3	17.0	18.0	20.3	22.6	23.6
43	32	34	36	39	42	44
44	33	35	37	40	43	45
45	36	38	39	43	47	48
46	38	41	42	46	50	51
47	40	43	44	48	52	53
48	42	44	46	50	54	56
49	44	47	49	53	57	59
50	47	49	51	55	59	61
51	49	52	53	58	63	64
52	52	55	57	62	67	69
53	54	58	60	65	70	72
54	56	60	62	67	72	74
55	59	62	65	70	75	78

AGE NINE YEARS

Height in inches	6.5	7.1	7.5	8.3	9.1	9.5	10.1
	16.6	18.1	19.0	21.1	23.2	24.1	25.6
45	36	38	39	43	47	48	50
46	38	41	42	46	50	51	54
47	40	43	44	48	52	53	56
48	42	44	46	50	54	56	58
49	44	47	49	53	57	59	62
50	47	50	51	56	61	62	65
51	49	52	54	59	64	66	69
52	52	55	57	62	67	69	72
53	54	58	60	65	70	72	76
54	57	61	63	68	73	75	79
55	60	64	66	72	78	80	84
56	62	66	68	74	80	82	86
57	66	70	72	78	84	86	90

AGE TEN YEARS

Height in inches	7.2	7.7	8.0	8.7	9.4	9.7
	18.4	19.7	20.4	22.1	23.8	24.1
47	40	43	44	48	52	53
48	43	45	47	51	55	57
49	45	48	50	54	58	60
50	48	51	52	57	62	63
51	49	52	54	59	64	66
52	52	55	57	62	67	69
53	55	59	61	66	71	73
54	57	61	63	68	73	75
55	60	64	66	72	78	80
56	64	68	70	76	82	84
57	67	71	74	80	86	89
58	69	73	76	82	88	91
59	72	76	78	85	92	94
60	75	79	82	89	96	99

WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR GIRLS

Ages: Eleven to Sixteen Years

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE ELEVEN YEARS

8.2	8.5	9.1	9.7	10.0	10.5
20.9	21.6	23.1	24.6	25.4	26.7
45	47	51	55	57	59
48	50	54	58	60	63
52	54	59	64	66	69
54	56	61	66	68	71
56	58	63	68	70	73
59	61	66	71	73	77
61	64	69	74	77	80
64	66	72	78	80	84
68	70	76	82	84	88
71	74	80	86	89	93
75	78	84	90	93	97
79	81	88	95	97	102
83	86	93	100	103	108
87	90	97	104	107	112
91	94	102	110	113	118

AGE TWELVE YEARS

8.1	8.5	8.8	9.5	10.2	10.5	10.9
20.6	21.6	22.3	24.1	25.9	26.6	27.6
50	50	53	60	65	67	70
51	53	56	63	68	70	73
52	54	58	65	70	72	76
53	56	60	67	72	74	78
54	58	61	69	74	77	80
55	61	65	73	79	81	85
56	65	69	77	83	85	89
57	67	71	80	86	89	93
58	71	75	84	90	93	97
59	74	79	81	88	95	102
60	78	83	86	93	100	108
61	83	88	91	98	105	113
62	87	92	95	103	111	119
63	91	97	100	108	116	125
64	95	100	104	112	120	129
65	98	104	107	116	125	134

AGE THIRTEEN YEARS

8.9	9.2	9.9	10.6	10.9	11.4
22.6	23.3	25.1	26.9	27.6	28.9
61	64	69	74	77	80
63	65	71	77	79	82
67	69	75	81	83	87
70	73	79	85	88	92
73	76	82	88	91	95
77	79	86	93	95	100
80	83	90	97	100	104
85	88	95	102	105	110
88	92	99	106	110	115
93	96	104	112	115	120
97	100	108	116	119	125
101	105	113	121	125	131
106	109	118	127	130	136
109	113	122	131	135	141
113	117	126	135	139	146
115	119	129	139	143	149

AGE FOURTEEN YEARS

8.6	9.1	9.4	10.1	10.8	11.1	11.6
21.8	23.1	23.9	25.8	27.3	28.1	29.4
55	64	68	70	76	82	88
56	68	72	75	81	87	90
57	72	77	79	86	93	100
58	77	81	84	91	98	105
59	79	84	87	94	101	109
60	83	88	92	99	106	115
61	87	92	95	103	111	119
62	90	96	99	107	115	124
63	93	98	102	110	118	127
64	97	103	106	115	124	133
65	100	106	110	119	128	138
66	103	109	113	122	131	141
67	108	115	118	128	138	148
68	111	117	121	131	141	151
69	112	119	123	133	143	154
70	113	120	124	134	144	155
71	115	122	126	136	146	157

AGE FIFTEEN YEARS

9.3	9.6	10.3	11.0	11.3	11.8
23.6	24.4	26.2	28.0	28.8	30.0
80	83	90	97	100	104
84	87	94	101	104	109
88	91	98	105	108	113
92	95	103	111	114	119
95	98	106	114	117	123
99	103	111	119	123	128
102	105	114	123	126	132
105	108	117	126	129	135
107	111	120	129	133	139
110	114	123	132	136	142
115	119	129	139	143	149
119	123	133	143	147	154
121	125	135	145	149	156
122	126	136	146	150	157
124	128	138	148	152	159

AGE SIXTEEN YEARS

9.0	9.5	9.8	10.5	11.2	11.5	12.0
22.9	24.1	24.9	26.6	28.4	29.2	30.5
58	83	88	92	99	106	115
59	85	90	93	101	109	117
60	89	95	98	106	114	123
61	93	98	102	110	118	127
62	95	101	105	113	121	131
63	97	103	106	115	124	133
64	100	106	109	118	127	136
65	102	108	112	121	130	140
66	106	113	117	126	135	146
67	111	117	121	131	141	151
68	113	120	124	134	144	155
69	115	122	126	136	146	157
70	117	124	128	138	148	159
71	118	125	130	140	150	162

TABLE 42.—WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR MEN

Ages: Seventeen to Twenty-four Years

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

AGE SEVENTEEN YEARS								AGE EIGHTEEN YEARS							
Height in inches	9.2	9.6	10.0	10.7	11.4	11.8	12.2		9.5	10.0	10.2	11.0	11.8	12.2	
	23.4	24.5	25.3	27.2	29.1	29.9	31.0		24.1	25.3	26.0	28.0	30.0	30.0	
	61..	93	97	99	104	109	111	115	62..	102	106	108	114	120	122
	62..	98	101	103	109	114	116	120	63..	107	111	113	119	125	127
	63..	102	106	108	114	120	122	126	64..	111	115	118	124	130	132
	64..	107	111	113	119	125	127	131	65..	116	120	122	129	136	138
	65..	112	116	119	125	131	134	138	66..	120	125	127	134	141	143
	66..	117	121	124	130	136	139	143	67..	124	128	131	138	145	147
	67..	120	125	127	134	141	143	148	68..	128	132	135	142	149	151
	68..	125	129	132	139	146	149	153	69..	131	136	139	146	153	155
	69..	129	133	136	143	150	153	157	70..	135	139	142	150	158	160
	70..	132	137	139	147	155	157	162	71..	138	143	146	154	162	164
	71..	136	140	143	151	159	162	166	72..	142	147	150	158	166	168
	72..	139	144	147	155	163	166	171	73..	146	151	154	162	170	172
73..	144	149	152	160	188	171	176	74..	151	156	159	168	177	179	
74..	149	154	157	166	175	178	183								

AGE: NINETEEN TO TWENTY YEARS								AGE: TWENTY-ONE TO TWENTY-FOUR YEARS							
Height in inches	9.6	10.1	10.4	11.2	12.0	12.3	12.8		9.8	10.3	10.6	11.4	12.2	12.5	
	24.4	25.6	26.4	28.4	30.4	31.2	32.4		24.9	26.2	27.0	29.0	31.0	31.8	
	63..	111	115	118	124	130	133	137	63..	114	118	121	127	133	136
	64..	115	119	121	128	135	137	141	64..	118	122	124	131	138	140
	65..	119	123	125	132	139	141	145	65..	121	125	128	135	142	145
	66..	122	127	129	136	143	145	150	66..	125	129	132	139	146	149
	67..	126	130	133	140	147	150	154	67..	128	132	135	142	149	152
	68..	130	135	138	145	152	155	160	68..	131	136	139	146	153	156
	69..	134	138	141	149	157	160	164	69..	135	139	142	150	158	161
	70..	138	142	145	153	161	164	168	70..	138	143	146	154	162	165
	71..	141	146	149	157	165	168	173	71..	142	147	150	158	166	169
	72..	145	150	153	161	169	172	177	72..	146	151	155	163	171	174
	73..	148	153	156	165	174	177	182	73..	151	156	159	168	177	180
	74..	152	157	160	169	178	181	186	74..	155	160	164	173	182	185
75..	156	162	166	174	182	186	192	75..	160	165	168	178	188	191	

TABLE 43.—WIDTH-WEIGHT FOR WOMEN

Ages: Seventeen to Twenty-four Years

Width of Iliac Crest in Inches and Centimeters

SEVENTEEN YEARS

9.8	10.1	10.8	11.4	11.7	12.0
25.1	25.8	27.4	29.0	29.7	30.7
96	98	103	108	110	113
99	102	107	112	115	118
103	105	111	117	119	122
106	108	114	120	122	126
109	111	117	123	125	129
112	114	120	126	128	132
115	118	124	130	133	137
119	122	128	134	137	141
123	125	132	139	141	145
126	129	136	143	146	150
129	132	139	146	149	153
131	134	141	148	151	155
134	137	144	151	154	159

AGE EIGHTEEN YEARS

9.6	10.0	10.2	10.9	11.6	11.8	12.2
24.4	25.4	26.1	27.7	29.3	30.0	31.0
60..	99	102	104	110	116	118
61..	102	105	107	113	119	121
62..	104	108	110	116	122	124
63..	107	111	113	119	125	127
64..	109	112	115	121	127	129
65..	112	116	119	125	131	134
66..	116	120	122	129	136	138
67..	120	124	126	133	140	142
68..	123	127	130	137	144	146
69..	127	131	134	141	148	151
70..	129	134	137	144	151	154
71..	132	137	139	147	155	157

Height in inches

SEVENTEEN TO TWENTY YEARS

10.0	10.2	11.0	11.8	12.0	12.3
25.6	26.3	28.3	29.7	30.4	31.4
105	107	113	119	121	124
107	109	115	121	123	127
109	111	117	123	125	129
112	115	121	127	129	133
115	118	124	130	133	137
119	121	128	135	137	141
122	124	131	138	140	144
126	129	136	143	146	150
130	133	140	147	150	154
134	137	144	151	154	159
138	140	148	156	158	163
142	144	152	160	162	167

AGE: TWENTY-ONE TO
TWENTY-FOUR YEARS

9.8	10.1	10.4	11.1	11.8	12.1	12.4
24.8	25.8	26.5	28.2	29.9	30.6	31.6
60..	103	107	109	115	121	123
61..	105	109	111	117	123	125
62..	108	112	114	120	126	128
63..	111	114	117	123	129	132
64..	114	118	121	127	133	136
65..	117	121	124	130	136	139
66..	121	125	128	135	142	145
67..	125	129	132	139	146	149
68..	129	133	136	143	150	153
69..	132	137	139	147	155	157
70..	136	140	143	151	159	162
71..	139	144	147	155	163	166

Height in inches

ADEQUATE LOW-COST DIETS.

Booher (*Jour. Am. Med. Assn.*, 114, 548, 1940) presents tabular data showing the allowance of major food groups which will provide the nutritive essentials for persons at different age levels for a period of one year at a relatively low cost. Assuming the family to consist of "one moderately active man, one moderately active woman, one five-year-old daughter and an eight-year-old son, this family's food requirements could be adequately met by weekly supplies of the kinds and quantities of foods (shown separately for each member of the family) indicated in Table 44. These weekly allowances of food provide for the approximate daily intake of calories, protein, fat and carbohydrate as well as certain minerals and vitamins in the quantities shown in Table 45.

TABLE 44.—A Good Low-Cost Diet: Approximate Quantities Needed for One Week for Specified Individuals.*

	Unit of measure.	Moderately active man, quantity.	Moderately active woman, quantity.	Boy 8 years, quantity.	Girl 5 years, quantity.
Flour, cereal†	Pound	4½	3½	2½	2
Milk (or its equivalent)	Quart	3½	3½	5	7
Potatoes, sweet potatoes	Pound	3	2½	2½	2
Dried legumes, nuts	Ounce	6	4	3	2
Tomatoes, citrus fruits	Pound	1½	1½	1½	1½
Leafy, green and yellow vegetables	Pound	3	3½	3½	2½
Dried fruits	Pound	½	½	½	½
Other vegetables and fruits	Pound	2	1½	1½	1
Butter	Ounce	6	6	6	4
Other fats	Ounce	10	6	1	
Sugars	Pound	1½	1	½	½
Lean meat, poultry, fish	Pound	2½	1½	1½	½
Eggs	Number	3	4	5	5

* Based on the Yearbook of Agriculture, 1939, page 338.

† Count as 1 pound of flour each 1½ pounds of bread purchased.

TABLE 45.—A Good Low-Cost Diet: Approximate Nutritive Values Daily for Specified Individuals.*

	Unit of measure.	Moderately active man.	Moderately active woman.	Boy, 8 years.	Girl, 5 years.
Food energy value	Calories	3070	2510	2130	1750
Protein	Grams	95	78	76	66
Fats	Grams	117	94	82	68
Carbohydrates	Grams	409	338	271	214
Calcium	Grams	0.92	0.88	1.10	1.00
Phosphorus	Grams	1.54	1.33	1.42	1.40
Iron	Milligrams	15.4	19.3	12.3	9.4
Vitamin A	Int. units†	9000	9600	9500	7700
Vitamin B ₁	Int. units†	610	530	500	440
Ascorbic acid	Milligrams	80	80	70	60
Riboflavin	Sherman units	720	660	730	800

* Adapted from Yearbook of Agriculture, 1939, page 338.

† International units.

Family members, description	Milk (quarts)	Potatoes, sweet potatoes (pounds)	toes, citrus fruits (pounds)	yellow vege- tables (pounds)	dry legumes, nuts (pounds)	vege- tables (pounds)	Eggs (dozen)	poultry, fish (pounds)	Flour, cereals (pounds)	Butter (pounds)	Other fats (pounds)	Sugars (pounds)
Children under 2 years . . .	260	80	65	80	18	..	50	7	..	3
Children 2 to 3 years . . .	365	90	65	130	..	40	22	15	80	10	..	7
Boys:												
4 to 6 years . . .	365	100	65	130	7	75	22	25	100	15	..	15
7 to 8 years . . .	260-365	120	65	180	10	100	22	65	140	20	3	25
9 to 10 years . . .	260-365	130	65	200	10	140	18	80	160	20	20	40
11 to 12 years . . .	260-365	140	65	200	15	140	18	90	180	20	20	40
13 to 15 years . . .	260-365	160	65	160	15	175	18	100	230	20	30	50
16 to 19 years . . .	260-365	220	65	160	15	175	13	140	310	20	40	65
Girls:												
4 to 7 years . . .	365	100	65	130	7	75	22	25	100	15	..	15
8 to 10 years . . .	260-365	120	65	180	10	100	22	65	140	20	3	25
11 to 13 years . . .	260-365	130	65	200	10	140	18	80	160	20	20	40
14 to 19 years . . .	260-365	140	65	200	15	140	18	90	180	20	20	40
Men 20 years and over:												
Very active . . .	180	300	65	160	25	175	13	160	420	20	60	80
Moderately active . . .	180	160	65	160	20	175	13	130	230	20	30	65
Sedentary . . .	260	140	65	180	10	140	18	90	160	20	20	40
Women 20 years and over:												
Very active . . .	180	160	65	180	15	175	18	100	230	20	30	65
Moderately active . . .	180	140	65	180	15	165	18	90	180	20	20	50
Sedentary . . .	260	100	65	180	10	140	18	90	120	20	20	40
In pregnancy . . .	365	140	65	250	10	200	22	90	170	20	20	40
In lactation . . .	365	170	65	250	10	200	22	100	210	20	30	50
Yearly total for family
Monthly total (divide by 12)
Weekly total (divide by 50)

*From the 1939 Yearbook of Agriculture (Food and Life).

RECOMMENDED DIETARY ALLOWANCES, REVISED 1948
(AMOUNTS PER DAY)
Food and Nutrition Board, National Research Council

	Calories ¹	Protein grams	Cal- cium grams	Iron mg.	Vitamin A I. U. ²	Thia- mine mg. ³	Ribo- flavin mg. ³	Niacin (Nicotin- ic acid) mg. ³	Ascorbic acid mg.	Vitamin D I. U.
Man (154 lb., 70 kg.)										
Sedentary.....	2400	70	1.0	12 ⁴	5000	1.2	1.8	12	75	5
Physically active.....	3000	70	1.0	12 ⁴	5000	1.5	1.8	15	75	5
with heavy work.....	4500	70	1.0	12 ⁴	5000	1.8	1.8	18	75	5
Woman (123 lb., 56 kg.)										
Sedentary.....	2000	60	1.0	12	5000	1.1	1.5	10	70	5
Moderately active.....	2400	60	1.0	12	5000	1.2	1.5	12	70	5
Very active.....	3000	60	1.0	12	5000	1.5	1.5	15	70	5
Pregnancy (latter half)										
Lactation.....	2400 ⁶	85	1.5	15	6000	1.5	2.5	15	100	400
	3000	100	2.0	15	8000	1.5	3.0	15	150	400
Children up to 12 yrs.⁷										
Under 1 yr. ⁸	110/2.2 lb. (1 kg.)	3.5/2.2 lb. (1 kg.)	1.0	6	1500	0.4	0.6	4	30	400
1-3 yrs. (27 lb., 12 kg.).....	1200	40	1.0	7	2000	0.6	0.9	6	35	400
4-6 yrs. (42 lb., 19 kg.).....	1600	50	1.0	8	2500	0.8	1.2	8	50	400
7-9 yrs. (58 lb., 26 kg.).....	2000	60	1.0	10	3500	1.0	1.5	10	60	400
10-12 yrs. (78 lb., 35 kg.).....	2500	70	1.2	12	4500	1.2	1.8	12	75	400
Children over 12 yrs.⁷										
Girls, 13-15 yrs. (108 lb., 49 kg.).....	2600	80	1.3	15	5000	1.3	2.0	13	80	400
16-20 yrs. (122 lb., 55 kg.).....	2400	75	1.0	15	5000	1.2	1.8	12	80	400
Boys, 13-15 yrs. (108 lb., 49 kg.).....										
16-20 yrs. (141 lb., 64 kg.).....	3200	85	1.4	15	5000	1.5	2.0	15	90	400
	3500	100	1.4	15	6000	1.7	2.5	17	100	400

fat-sources indicated.

Water.—A suitable allowance of water for adults is 2.5 liters daily in most instances. An ordinary standard for diverse persons is one milliliter for each calorie of food. Most of this quantity is contained in prepared foods. At work or in hot weather, requirements may reach 5 to 13 liters daily. Water should be allowed *ad libitum*, since sensations of thirst usually serve as adequate guides to intake except for infants and sick persons.

Salt.—The needs for salt and for water are closely interrelated. A liberal allowance of sodium chloride for the adult is 5 grams daily, except for some persons who sweat profusely. The average normal intake of salt is 10 to 15 grams daily, an amount which meets the salt requirements for a water intake up to 4 liters daily. When sweating is excessive, one additional gram of salt should be consumed for each liter of water in excess of 4 liters daily. With heavy work or in hot climates 20 to 30 grams daily may be consumed with meals and in drinking water. Even then, most persons do not need more salt than usually occurs in prepared foods. It has been shown that after acclimatization persons produce sweat that contains only about 0.5 gram to the liter in contrast with a content of 2 to 3 grams for sweat of the unacclimatized person. Consequently after acclimatization, need for increase of salt beyond that of ordinary food disappears.

Iodine.—The requirement for iodine is small, probably about 0.002 to 0.004 mg. daily for each kilogram of body weight, or a total of 0.15 to 0.30 mg. daily for the adult. This need is met by the regular use of iodized salt; its use is especially important in *adolescence* and *pregnancy*.

Phosphorus.—Available evidence indicates that the phosphorus allowances should be at least equal to those of calcium in the diets of children and of women during the latter part of pregnancy and during lactation. In the case of other adults the phosphorus allowances should be approximately 1.5 times those for calcium. In general it is safe to assume that if the calcium and protein needs are met through common foods, the phosphorus requirement also will be covered, because the common foods richest in calcium and protein are also the best sources of phosphorus.

Copper.—The requirement for copper for adults is about 1 to 2 mg. daily. Infants and children require approximately 0.05 mg. for each kilogram of body weight. The requirement for copper is approximately one-tenth that for iron. A good diet normally will supply sufficient copper.

Vitamin K.—The requirement for vitamin K usually is satisfied by any good diet, except for the infant *in utero* and for the first few days after birth. Supplemental vitamin K is recommended during the last month of pregnancy. When it has not been given in this manner, it is recommended for the mother preceding delivery or for the baby immediately after birth.

Folic Acid.—Evidence for recognizing folic acid (pteroylglutamic acid, Vitamin Be, L. casei factor or vitamin M) as an essential human nutrient is currently being considered. The quantitative requirement cannot be closely estimated from evidence now available.

known. These allowances must be adjusted up or down to meet specific needs. The calorie values in the table are therefore not applicable to all individuals but rather represent group averages. The proper calorie allowance is that which over an extended period will maintain body weight or rate of growth at the level most conducive to well being.

The allowance depends on the relative amounts of vitamin A and carotene. The allowances of the table are based on the premise that approximately two-thirds of the vitamin A value of the average diet in this country is contributed by carotene and that carotene has half or less than half the value of vitamin A.

For adults, except pregnant and lactating women) receiving diets supplying 2,000 calories or less, such as reducing diets, the allowances of thiamine and niacin may be 1 mg. and 10 mg. respectively. The fact that figures are given for different calorie levels for thiamine and niacin does not imply that we can estimate the requirement of these factors within 500 calories, but they are added merely for simplicity of calculation. In the present revision, riboflavin allowances are based on body weight rather than calorie levels. (Other members of the B complex also are required, though no values can be given. Foods supplying adequate thiamine, riboflavin, and niacin will tend to supply sufficient of the remaining B vitamins.

There is evidence that the male adult needs relatively little iron. The need will usually be provided for if the diet is satisfactory in other respects.

The need for supplemental vitamin D by vigorous adults leading a normal life seems to be minimum. For persons working at night and for nuns and others whose habits shield them from the sunlight, as well as for elderly persons, the ingestion of small amounts of vitamin D is desirable.

During the latter part of pregnancy the calorie allowance should increase approximately 20 per cent over the preceding level. The value of 2400 calories represents the allowance for pregnant, sedentary women.

Allowances for children are based on the needs for the middle year in each group (as 2, 5, 8, etc.) and are for moderate activity and for average weight at the middle year of the age group.

Needs of infants increase from month to month with size and activity. The amounts given are for approximately 6 to 8 months. The dietary requirements for some of the nutrients such as protein and calcium are less if derived largely from human milk.

Further recommendations:

Fat. There is available little information concerning the human requirement for fat. Fat allowances must be based at present more on food habits than on physiological requirements. While a requirement for certain unsaturated fatty acids (the linoleic and arachidonic acids of natural fats) has been amply demonstrated with experimental animals, the human need for these fatty acids is not known. In spite of the paucity of information on this subject there are several factors which make it desirable (1) that fat be included in the diet to the extent of at least 20 to 25 percent of the total calories and (2) that the fat intake include "essential" unsaturated fatty acids to the extent of at least 1 percent of the total calories.

NUTRITIVE AND CALORIC VALUES OF FOODS.

reference should be made to Classification and Structure of (page 101) and Practical Evaluation of Foods (page 160) for comprehension of the succeeding tables.

Arrangement of Tabulated Data.

Percentage values are not readily compared. A quick survey of the tables will enable the clinician or nutritionist to assign to the patient a more logical diet. It is irrational to delete items from a diet merely because the percentage composition of fats, for example, is high; the size of the portion served may be such as to make the fats negligible.

Household measure is necessarily a rough one. The metric measurements have been brought to the nearest 5 grams, except where the total is less than 15 grams. The composition of this portion is calculated to the nearest first decimal, and the percentages are estimated to the nearest 5 except where this value is unusually low.

In ascertaining average portions, the judgment of five or more persons has been considered and the accepted portion weighed. The greatest disagreement was encountered with the portions of fat. Finally, the allotment for raw meat (to be eaten cooked) was taken at $\frac{1}{2}$ pound, and for cooked meat, at $\frac{1}{4}$ pound. For children these items should be halved.

Nationally distributed commercial brands of food are included in the tables to increase their value, since the use of these products has become so common. This innovation should facilitate the work of physicians, dietitians and nurses. With few exceptions the manufacturers are solely responsible for the analyses.

Whenever possible, carbohydrate data have been reported in the succeeding tables without fiber or other unassimilable matter. This is denoted by an asterisk on the percentage figure. Unfortunately this designation in most instances cannot be taken as representing true availability.

The tables have been arranged to show in plain numerals the percentage relationship of the various nutritive elements of specific foods. Simultaneously, the number of grams of each element in the average portion, together with the total caloric value of the portion, is indicated in **boldface numerals**.

In handling such a mass of figures, many errors are liable to enter. It is hoped with the care taken, that the mistakes in transcribing, calculating, checking and rechecking have been reduced to a vanishing point. If and when such errors are detected, they will be reported, and the author will consider it a great favor.

Bridges' Food Calorie Calculator.

The production of various editions of food tables necessarily required the authors to make a great number of calculations establishing gram quantities and Caloric values of the various foods.

It was found that, irrespective of the care observed in doing a mass of calculating necessary, apparently it was impossible to avoid arithmetical errors. The calculations were found to be complicated when the Caloric values of 4.1, 4.1, 9.3 Calories per gram were utilized in place of 4.0, 4.0 and 9.0. To lessen the chance of error the appended key was devised to substitute the process of addition for multiplication.

Table 47 is herewith presented as a simple computing key for those called upon to calculate swiftly and accurately grams and Calories of any specific food.

By way of illustrating its application, the following example is submitted:

	Size of Portion.		Value of Portion		
	Grams.		Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Lima beans, green, fresh . . .	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	16.5	5.6	0.6
			22.0	7.5	0.8

The combined carbohydrate and protein gram content is 22.1.

The Caloric value of carbohydrates and proteins is 4.1 Calories per gram. The Caloric value of fat is 9.3 Calories per gram.

In order to determine the Caloric value of 22.1 grams of carbohydrates and of proteins and 0.6 of fat, additions are made as follows:

Grams from Key.	Calories from Key.
20.0 grams, carbohydrate and protein, at 4.1 Calories per gram	= 82.0
2.0 grams, carbohydrate and protein, at 4.1 Calories per gram	= 8.2
0.1 grams, carbohydrate and protein, at 4.1 Calories per gram	= 0.4
<hr/>	
22.1 grams	
0.6 gram, fat,	at 9.3 Calories per gram = 5.6
	<hr/>
	Total 96.2

It can readily be seen that this short cut reaches the result more rapidly and with far less likelihood of error than the orthodox methods. Needless to say the carrying of final Caloric values to decimal places is both needless and ridiculous. For practical purposes the nearest multiple of 5 is the accepted figure which in this instance is 95.

For the sake of completeness the Caloric Key also carries the alcoholic Caloric equation.

TABLE 47.—Bridges' Caloric Key.

	Gram Units.	Calories C. & P. (4.1)	Calories Fat (9.3)
	10	41	93
	20	82	186
	30	123	279
	40	164	372
	50	205	465
	60	246	558
	70	287	651
	80	328	754
	90	369	837
	100	410	930
	1	4.1	9.3
	2	8.2	18.6
	3	12.3	27.9
	4	16.4	37.2
	5	20.5	46.5
	6	24.6	55.8
	7	28.7	65.1
	8	32.8	75.4
	9	36.9	83.7
	10	41.0	93.0
	0.1	0.41	0.93
	0.2	0.82	1.86
	0.3	1.23	2.79
	0.4	1.64	3.72
	0.5	2.05	4.65
	0.6	2.46	5.58
	0.7	2.87	6.51
	0.8	3.28	7.54
	0.9	3.69	8.37
	1.0	4.10	9.30
07	0.01	0.041	0.093
14	0.02	0.082	0.186
21	0.03	0.123	0.279
28	0.04	0.164	0.372
35	0.05	0.205	0.465
42	0.06	0.246	0.558
49	0.07	0.287	0.651
56	0.08	0.328	0.754
63	0.09	0.369	0.837
70	0.10	0.410	0.930

Throughout these tables, reference is constantly made to the term "Calorie." As taught in elementary physics, a calorie is the amount of heat necessary to raise the temperature of 1 cc. of water 1° C. In food chemistry a different type of heat unit is usually called the "large calorie" in contradistinction to the calorie just described, which is termed the "small calorie." The "large calorie" (food calorie) is the amount of heat necessary to raise 1 kg. (1000 g.) of water 1° C. Based on this definition, the following heat values have been physiologically determined:

TABLE 48.—Food Equivalents.

1 gram carbohydrate	= 4.1 Cal.	1 gram fat	= 9.3 Cal.
1 gram protein	= 4.1 Cal.	1 gram alcohol	= 7.0 Cal.

TABLE 49.—Abbreviations.

Teaspoonful	= t.	Inch	= "
Tablespoonful	= T.	Slice	= sl.
Cup	= c.	Small	= sm.
Average	= av.	Large	= lg.
Diameter	= diam.	Strip	= str.
Square	= sq.	Medium	= med.
Pound	= lb.	Scant	= sc.
As purchased	= A.P.	Edible portion	= E.P.
Commercial	= com.	Concentrated	= Conc.

TABLE 50.—Conversion Factors.

1 Teaspoonful (fluid)	= 5 cc.	1 Teacup (fluid)	= 140 cc.
1 Dessertspoonful (fluid)	= 10 cc.	1 Cup (fluid)	= 236 cc.
1 Tablespoonful (fluid)	= 15 cc.	1 Tumbler (fluid)	= 236 cc.
1 Demi-tasse (fluid)	= 70 cc.	1 Glass (fluid)	= 236 cc.
3 Teaspoonfuls	= 1 Tablespoonful	30 Grams*	= 1 Ounce
4 Tablespoonfuls	= $\frac{1}{4}$ Cup	60 Grams†	= 2 Ounces
8 Tablespoonfuls	= $\frac{1}{2}$ Cup	85 Grams‡	= 3 Ounces
16 Tablespoonfuls	= 1 Cup	115 Grams	= $\frac{1}{4}$ Pound
1 Cup	= 1 Glass	230 Grams	= $\frac{1}{2}$ Pound
2 Cups	= 1 Pint	460 Grams	= 1 Pound
4 Cups	= 1 Quart	1 Kilogram	= 2.2 Pounds

All quantities are calculated as level and unpacked. For viscous substances the weight indicated is that held in the measuring instrument, not that delivered by rapid draining.

The cup referred to is the "Standard Measuring Cup."

* Actual value = 28.4 gm. † Actual value = 56.8 gm. ‡ Actual value = 85.2 gm.

EXPLANATION OF TABLE.

Due to the large volume of data collected subsequent to the completion of this work, it has been necessary to delete a number of the commercial infiltrations. The remaining commercial products have been restricted to the more commonplace products.

Efforts have been made to present a table of international characteristics inasmuch as foodstuffs of world-wide origin are available in urban and many rural centers. It is essential that the composition of unusual foods be known so that they may be intelligently included in a place in diet therapy.

The high incidence of blank spaces under the Carbohydrate content in meats and fish is due to the lack of available data. Carbohydrates are usually regarded as being absent in these groups. Glycogen, which is found in meats and fish, is a wholly assimilable carbohydrate and warrants determination and tabulation.

The establishment of the household measures was the result of a comparison of the amounts of the various foods allotted per portion in the raw and cooked states in diet kitchens and hotels. Wherever agreement could not be readily agreed upon or where it was impracticable to obtain a sample of the food for examination and weight, the weight of portion is presented as 100 grams.

Weights are given for the edible portion of foods in the **raw** or **cooked** state unless otherwise designated.

When several varieties of the same food are generally presented in the following order: *Raw, cooked (home), canned, commercial, dried, salted, spiced, etc.* "**Cooked**" implies boiling.

Grams in the household measures and the Calories, with few exceptions, are entered in multiples of 5 wherever the amounts are less than 15.

boldface numerals indicate the number of grams and calories per average portion. The plain numerals indicate the percentage composition thereof. *Italicized* letters indicate trade names.

TABLE 51.—Nutritive and Caloric Values of Foods.

A	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
	Abalone	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	7.6	49.9	0.2
				3.3	21.7	0.1
	Abalone, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.7	21.7	0.1
				3.7	21.7	0.1
	Acidophilus milk, com.	240	1 c.	9.0	8.2	4.8
				*3.8	3.4	2.0
	Agar-agar	10	1 T.	—	—	—
				*72.7	1.6	0.3
	Ale yeast, dried	10	2 t.	4.8	3.9	0.1
				48.4	38.9	1.2
	Alewives	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		44.6	11.3
					19.4	4.9
	Alfalfa bread	25	1 sl.	16.0	2.6	0.3
				64.0	10.6	1.3
	Algae, Hawaiian:					
	Limu eleele	25	2 T.	—	0.7	—
				—	2.8	Trace
	Limu lipoa	25	2 T.	—	0.4	—
				—	1.6	Trace
	Alimentary pastes:					
	Alphabets	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.9	2.9	0.3
				75.6	11.7	1.0
	Macaroni (average)	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	55.6	10.1	0.7
				74.1	13.4	0.9
	Macaroni, boiled	240	1 c.	37.9	7.2	3.6
				15.8	3.0	1.5
	Noodles	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	45.4	7.0	0.6
				75.2	11.7	1.0
	Spaghetti	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	75.9	12.1	0.4
				75.9	12.1	0.4
	Vermicelli	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	43.2	6.5	1.2
				72.0	10.9	2.0
	All-Bran, Kellogg	3	1 T.	1.7	0.4	0.1
				*58.0	13.8	4.5
	Alligator pear, see Avocado.					
	Almond butter	15	1 T.	1.2	3.2	9.2
				7.9	22.1	61.5
	Almond extract, Burnett, A.P.	5	1 t.	0	0	0
				0	0	0
	Almond meal	25	2 T.	1.8	12.6	3.9
				*7.2	50.6	15.6
	Almond paste (Marzipan)	10	1 t.	1.1	1.3	3.5
				10.9	13.2	34.5
	Almonds	30	20	1.3	6.1	16.0
				*4.3	20.5	53.5
	Alphabets	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.9	2.9	0.3
				75.6	11.7	1.0
	Amaranth, Chinese	100		4.6	3.0	0.6
				4.6	3.0	0.6
	American cheese, pale	15	2" x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	Trace	4.3	5.4
				0.3	28.8	35.9
	American cheese, red	15	2" x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	—	4.4	5.7
				—	29.6	38.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			A
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
	15	1	0.2	2.3	0.5	15
			*1.7	15.3	3.6	
	6	1 t.	0.1	1.2	0.7	12
			*2.5	20.6	12.1	
Lambquarters,						
	130	1, 2½" diam.	12.2	0.4	0.5	55
			*9.4	0.3	0.4	
	130	1, 2½" diam.	13.5	0.4	0.4	60
			*10.4	0.3	0.3	
	130	1, 2½" diam.	14.6	0.4	0.4	65
			*11.2	0.3	0.3	
without sugar	120	1	12.0	0.4	—	50
			*10.0	0.3	Trace	
anned	120	1	37.0	0.8	0.5	160
			*30.8	0.7	0.4	
without sugar	135	½ c.	5.9	0.1	—	25
			*4.4	0.1	Trace	
	60	½ lb.	32.4	0.8	0.6	140
			*54.0	1.4	1.0	
	40	1 heaping T.	19.6	0.2	0.4	85
			48.9	0.4	1.1	
om.	35	1 T.	14.7	0.3	—	60
			42.0	0.7	Trace	
g	100	1	28.1	2.4	9.3	210
			*28.1	2.4	9.3	
alian)	100	¾ c.	40.8	3.4	—	180
			*40.8	3.4	—	
	120	½ c.	12.6	0.1	—	50
			*10.5	0.1	—	
	100	1 sl.	32.6	2.3	8.7	225
			*32.6	2.3	8.7	
	10	1 T.	8.4	0.2	0.2	35
			84.1	1.5	2.5	
e, General Mills						
lices	85	1 pkg.	76.8	1.3	0.3	315
			90.4	1.5	0.3	
ust mix	255	1 pkg.	118.1	16.6	93.3	1380
			46.3	6.5	36.6	
anned, unsweetened	135	½ c.	10.9	0.3	0.3	50
			*7.9	0.2	0.2	
pack	135	½ c.	16.2	0.3	0.3	70
			*12.0	0.2	0.2	
ened	135	½ c.	23.8	0.3	0.1	100
			*17.6	0.2	0.1	
	50	2, 1½" diam.	3.3	0.3	—	15
			*6.7	0.6	—	
water pack	120	½ c.	7.7	0.6	0.1	35
			*6.4	0.5	0.1	
juice pack	120	½ c.	11.3	0.6	0.2	50
			*9.4	0.5	0.2	
in syrup	120	½ c.	25.7	0.7	0.1	110
			21.4	0.6	0.1	
	10	1 half	8.7	—	—	35
			86.5	0.6	0.2	
	50	10 halves	21.7	2.4	0.5	105
			*43.4	4.7	1.0	
without sugar	130	½ c. (10)	23.4	2.6	—	105
			*18.0	2.0	Trace	
n	25	1 T.	13.7	0.2	—	55
			55.0	0.8	Trace	

A	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
	Apricot sauce	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	63.4 48.8	2.5 1.9	1.7 1.3
	Arrowhead tubers (wappato) .	50	1 sm.	11.1 *22.2	4.2 8.4	0.6 1.2
	Arrowroot starch	26	2 T.	23.6 *90.6	0.1 0.4	— 0.1
Artichokes:						
	Globe or French	50	1, 3" diam.	6.0 11.9	1.5 2.9	0.2 0.4
	Globe, boiled	100	4 hearts	2.7 *2.7	1.1 1.1	— Trace
	French, canned	125	5 hearts, sm.	5.5 *4.4	1.0 0.8	— —
	Jerusalem	100	1 lg. tuber	17.0 17.0	2.2 2.2	0.1 0.1
	Jerusalem, boiled	100	1 lg.	3.2 *3.2	1.6 1.6	— Trace
	Asparagus, green	75	6, 6" stalks	1.9 *2.5	1.7 2.2	0.2 0.2
	Cooked	85	6, 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ " stalks	1.2 *1.4	1.8 2.1	0.3 0.3
	Canned	85	6, 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ " long	1.9 *2.3	1.3 1.5	0.1 0.1
	Canned, com.	100	5 stalks	2.8 2.8	1.7 1.7	0.2 0.2
	Soup, canned, conc.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	9.8 7.0	1.8 1.3	1.7 1.2
	Soup, cream of, com.	240	1 c.	9.1 3.8	1.9 0.8	7.9 3.3
	Asparagus-beans, pods	100	1 c.	7.8 *7.8	3.4 3.4	0.3 0.3
	Asparagus-beans, sprouted seeds	100		3.3 *3.3	2.4 2.4	0.4 0.4
	Aunt Jemima buckwheat, corn and wheat flour, Quaker . . .	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	69.0 69.0	11.2 11.2	2.1 2.1
	Aunt Jemima pancake flour, Quaker	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	71.6 71.6	10.4 10.4	1.5 1.5
Avocados:						
	Calavo strain, see Calavo . . .	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ sm.	5.1 6.0	1.8 2.1	17.0 20.0
	Florida	85	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	2.8 3.3	1.4 1.7	22.4 26.4
	Fuerte, hybrid race	85	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	4.3 5.1	1.5 1.7	22.4 26.4
	Guatemalan race	85	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	4.6 5.4	1.7 2.0	14.6 17.2
	Mexican race	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ med.	3.4 6.7	1.0 2.0	11.6 23.2
	West Indian race (Alligator pear)	85	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	6.6 7.8	1.1 1.3	6.6 7.7

B

Baby Ralston	15	1 T.	10.7 71.6	2.2 14.8	0.3 2.0
Bacillus acidophilus milk, com.	240	1 c.	9.0 *3.8	8.2 3.4	4.8 2.0

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			B
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
ed items.						
ed	80	4 str. 8½" long		8.4	51.8	515
				10.5	64.8	
pea-mealed, Cana-						
.	60	½ lb.		16.2	2.8	90
				27.1	4.6	
kfast, broiled crisp	20	4 str. 7" long¹		7.2	9.1	115
				35.8	45.6	
ders:						
.			—	—	0	—
.			34.3	—	0	—
.			—	—	0	—
.			41.2	—	0	—
.			0	0	0	0
.			0	0	0	—
.			—	—	0	—
.			37.2	—	0	—
.			—	—	0	—
.			44.0	0	0	—
oots	100	¾ c.	5.1	2.5	0.3	35
			5.1	2.5	0.3	
Also see Plantain.						
.	125	1, 7" x 1½"	26.2	1.6	0.8	120
			*21.0	1.3	0.6	
Fla.	125	1 med.	28.0	1.5	0.3	125
			22.4	1.2	0.2	
ed	140	1	32.0	1.8	1.1	150
			22.7	1.3	0.8	
pisang flour	100	¾ c.	72.5	3.5	0.8	320
			72.5	3.5	0.8	
rain	30	¼ c.	23.2	3.7	0.5	115
			77.2	12.4	1.8	
of	50	¼ c.	38.0	5.6	0.8	185
			76.1	11.1	1.6	
.	30	3 T	23.2	2.6	0.3	110
			77.8	8.5	1.1	
boiled	100	½ c.	27.6	2.9	0.6	130
			*27.6	2.9	0.6	
on's patent	9	1 T.	7.0	0.6	0.1	35
			*78.3	6.3	1.0	
pearled, Quaker	30	3 T.	23.1	3.1	0.2	110
			77.1	10.5	0.8	
d flour	130	1 c.	94.6	13.7	2.9	470
			72.8	10.5	2.2	
se Vinespinach.						
k	230	½ lb.		47.4	3.9	230
				20.6	1.7	
.	230	½ lb.		38.9	1.1	170
				16.9	0.5	
.	230	½ lb.		46.0	2.3	210
				20.0	1.0	
ed	230	½ lb.		44.8	6.4	245
				18.6	2.8	
med	115	¼ lb.		22.4	5.9	145
				19.5	5.1	
endive	50	½ heart	0.5	0.6	Trace	5
			*0.9	1.1	0.1	

¹ strip raw bacon weighs 12-15 g.; cooked crisp, weight is reduced to 5-8 g. upon leanness of strip.

B

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
Bean flour, lima	100	1½ c. sc.	63.0	21.5	2.4
			63.0	21.5	2.4
Bean soup, canned, conc. . . .	140	½ c.	19.6	8.5	2.5
			14.0	6.1	1.8
Soup, com.	250	1 c.	25.0	13.3	10.5
			10.0	5.3	4.2
Beans:					
Baked, canned	250	1 c.	41.5	14.0	2.8
			16.6	5.6	1.1
Baked, Boston style, com. . .	250	1 c.	45.0	15.0	20.0
			18.0	6.0	8.0
Baked, pork and tomato sauce, com.	250	1 c.	50.0	18.8	5.0
			20.0	7.5	2.0
Baked, vegetarian, com. . .	250	1 c.	50.0	17.5	—
			20.0	7.0	—
Broad, green	75	½ c.	10.3	6.1	0.5
			*13.8	8.1	0.6
Broad, green pods	100		11.9	3.0	0.3
			11.9	3.0	0.3
Broad, cooked	125	½ c.	8.9	5.1	—
			*7.1	5.1	Trace
Butter	75	¾ c.	21.8	7.1	0.5
			29.1	9.4	0.6
Butter, cooked	100	½ c.	17.1	7.1	—
			*17.1	7.1	Trace
Carob	10	4" piece	6.7	0.6	0.1
			67.0	5.7	1.1
Cranberry, young pods . . .	100		0.6	0.4	0
			0.6	0.4	0
Cranberry, medium pods . .	100		1.7	1.3	0.6
			1.7	1.3	0.6
Fave	75	¾ c.	3.1	4.0	—
			4.2	5.4	—
Fave, dried	75	½ c.	36.1	17.7	1.9
			48.2	23.6	2.5
Frigoles, dried	75	½ c.	48.8	16.4	1.0
			65.1	21.9	1.3
Green, canned	100	½ c.	3.4	1.2	0.1
			3.4	1.2	0.1
Haricots, cooked	125	½ c.	20.7	8.2	—
			*16.6	6.6	Trace
Haricots flageolets, canned .	130	½ c.	14.9	5.9	0.1
			*11.5	4.6	0.1
Haricots verts, canned . . .	130	¾ c.	2.6	1.4	0.1
			*2.0	1.1	0.1
Kidney, baked, com.	250	1 c.	52.5	18.8	3.8
			21.0	7.5	1.5
Kidney, canned	250	1 c.	43.3	17.5	0.5
			*17.3	7.0	0.2
Lima, green	75	½ c.	16.5	5.6	0.6
			*22.0	7.5	0.8
Lima, canned	130	½ c.	19.0	5.2	0.4
			14.6	4.0	0.3
Lima, dried	75	½ c.	49.4	13.6	0.5
			65.9	18.1	1.5
Lima, yellow, cooked . . .	125	½ c.	27.5	11.2	1.0
			22.0	9.0	0.8
Mesquite, dried	75	½ c.	57.8	9.2	1.9
			77.1	12.2	2.5

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat per 100 g.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			B
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
ed, green seed	100		59.9	23.3	1.0	350
outs	125	1 c.	59.9	23.3	1.0	
			4.1	3.6	0.4	35
ed	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*3.3	2.9	0.3	
			44.7	16.9	1.4	270
anned	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	59.6	22.5	1.8	
			6.5	1.0	0.1	30
inner, green pods	100		5.0	0.8	0.1	
			4.7	1.4	0.1	25
inner, cooked	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	*4.7	1.4	0.1	
			1.2	1.0	—	10
	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	*0.9	0.8	Trace	
			4.7	1.8	0.2	30
	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*6.3	2.4	0.2	
			9.9	10.2	4.9	130
n, cooked	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.2	13.6	6.3	
			17.2	18.0	4.4	185
d	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.8	14.4	3.5	
			33.1	30.2	15.3	48
sits	65	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	33.1	30.2	15.3	
			4.1	5.5	1.2	50
	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	6.3	8.5	1.8	
			5.8	1.8	0.2	35
ooked	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	7.7	2.4	0.2	
			4.5	1.3	0.1	25
ooked in much water	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	3.5	1.0	0.1	
			2.5	1.0	0.1	15
anned	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	1.9	0.8	0.1	
			4.9	1.4	0.1	25
	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.8	1.1	0.1	
			11.0	3.5	0.2	60
nned	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	14.6	4.7	0.3	
			3.2	1.3	0.1	20
			*2.5	1.0	0.1	
baby foods, see						
3, 707.						
	20	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	2.6	4.4	11.5	135
			13.2	21.9	57.4	
a:						
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	2.5	22.1	21.4	300
			1.1	9.6	9.3	
medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		36.3	65.6	760
				15.8	28.5	
average (f', 9-32)	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.3	35.4	505
				19.2	15.4	
os, average	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		36.6	64.9	755
				15.9	28.2	
verage (f', 30-62)	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		33.6	92.0	995
				14.6	40.0	
arter, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.5	30.5	460
				18.9	12.2	
nk, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		50.6	14.0	340
				22.0	6.1	
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	1.2	18.4	23.5	300
			1.0	16.0	20.4	
arter, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.0	30.8	475
				20.0	13.4	

f fat percentage.

assimilable.

ee indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

B

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
Beef, fresh:					
Hind-shank, lean	230	½ lb.		50.4	12.4
				21.9	5.4
Hind-shank, fat	230	½ lb.		46.9	43.2
				20.4	18.8
Kidney	155	½ c. diced	0.6	25.7	7.4
			0.4	16.6	4.8
Liver	230	½ lb.	5.8	46.9	12.4
			2.5	20.4	5.4
Loin, lean	230	½ lb.		42.8	36.8
				18.6	16.3
Loin, average (<i>f'</i> , 16-43)	230	½ lb.		38.9	57.5
				16.9	25.0
Lungs	115	½ lb.		17.8	3.5
				15.5	3.0
Marrow	20	1 T.		0.4	18.6
				2.2	92.8
Muscle, not trimmed	230	½ lb.	3.0	35.7	30.2
			1.3	19.9	13.1
Muscle, well trimmed	230	½ lb.	3.1	46.4	12.9
			1.4	20.2	5.6
Neck, average (<i>f'</i> , 8-35)	230	½ lb.		46.2	38.0
				20.1	16.5
Plate, lean	230	½ lb.		35.9	43.2
				15.6	18.8
Plate and brisket, average (<i>f'</i> , 21-51)	230	½ lb.		36.3	69.0
				15.8	30.0
Porterhouse steak	230	½ lb.		50.4	46.9
				21.9	20.4
Ribs, average (<i>f'</i> , 12-44)	230	½ lb.		40.0	52.9
				17.4	23.0
Rib rolls, lean	230	½ lb.		46.5	24.2
				20.2	10.5
Round, average (<i>f'</i> , 8-24)	230	½ lb.		44.4	29.9
				19.3	13.0
Rump, average (<i>f'</i> , 14-48)	230	½ lb.		35.7	71.3
				15.5	31.0
Scraped	40	2 T.		9.2	1.0
				23.0	2.5
Shank, fore, average (<i>f'</i> , 6-18)	230	½ lb.		46.9	20.7
				20.4	9.0
Shank, hind, average (<i>f'</i> , 7-23)	230	½ lb.		46.2	23.0
				20.1	10.0
Shoulder and clod	230	½ lb.		46.0	23.7
				20.0	10.3
Sides, average (<i>f'</i> , 13-39)	230	½ lb.		40.3	50.6
				17.5	22.0
Sirloin steak	230	½ lb.		43.5	42.5
				18.9	18.5
Suet	10	1 T.		0.5	8.2
				4.7	81.8
Sweetbreads	115	½ lb.		19.3	13.9
				16.8	12.1
Tenderloin	230	½ lb.		37.3	56.1
				16.2	24.4
Tongue	75	5 med. sl.	0.8	14.6	17.7
			1.1	19.4	29.6

f', range of fat percentage.

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat percentage.

Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			B
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
ed:						
	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.5	39.2	8.6	245
			0.4	34.1	7.5	
	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.8	39.3	9.4	250
			0.7	34.2	8.2	
	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		15.8	4.1	105
				26.4	6.9	
ised	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		26.2	33.8	420
				22.8	29.4	
sted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		29.1	25.3	355
				25.3	22.0	
cooked	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		16.4	27.3	320
				14.3	23.8	
roiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		27.8	9.0	200
				24.2	7.9	
ribs, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.9	6.2	185
				26.9	5.4	
asted, choice grade	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		24.7	42.7	500
				21.5	37.1	
asted, good grade	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		29.1	25.3	315
				25.3	22.0	
d	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		31.6	5.6	185
				27.5	4.9	
, cold	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.5	27.8	400
				26.5	24.2	
of, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		32.2	3.6	165
				28.0	3.1	
(bottom), braised	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		34.5	18.3	315
				30.0	15.9	
(top), roasted, choice						
e	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		32.5	19.1	310
				28.3	16.6	
(top), roasted, good						
e	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		35.2	10.3	240
				30.6	9.0	
a, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		33.9	6.9	205
				29.5	5.1	
fried, med. fat	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		23.5	23.5	315
				20.4	20.4	
grilled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		29.0	24.8	350
				25.2	21.6	
, round, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		34.3	3.6	175
				29.8	3.1	
, tenderloin, broiled,						
	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		27.2	14.5	250
				23.9	12.6	
, tenderloin, broiled,						
done	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		32.8	10.5	230
				28.5	9.1	
breada, boiled	80	2		17.8	6.9	135
				22.2	8.6	
od, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		28.3	30.4	400
				24.6	26.4	
e, boiled, lean	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		38.3	9.4	245
				33.3	8.2	
e, roast, lean	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.7	17.3	285
				26.7	15.0	
e, roast, med. fat	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		27.8	27.4	370
				24.2	23.8	
ned:						
s, minced	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	1.3	20.5	7.8	265
			1.1	17.8	6.8	

B	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Beef, canned:						
Corned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.			30.3	21.5
					26.3	18.7
Kidney, stewed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	2.4	21.2	5.9	
			2.1	18.4	5.1	
Luncheon	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		31.7	18.3	
				27.6	15.9	
Roasted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		30.0	17.0	
				25.9	14.8	
Sweetbreads	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.2	10.9	
				20.2	9.5	
Tongue, ground	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		24.6	28.9	
				21.4	25.1	
Tongue, whole	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.5	26.7	
				19.5	23.2	
Tripe	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		19.3	9.8	
				16.8	8.5	
Beef, miscellaneous:						
Dried, salted and smoked	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.3	18.0	3.9	
			0.4	30.0	6.5	
Dripping	10	1 T.	0	—	9.9	
			0	Trace	99.0	
Hash, corned, canned	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	34.9	23.0	3.9	
			15.2	10.0	1.7	
Hash, roast, canned	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	26.2	21.8	14.7	
			11.4	9.5	6.4	
Juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		5.9	0.7	
				4.9	0.6	
Sausage (beef and pork)	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.3	27.7	
				19.4	24.1	
Sausage, fried	60	2 oz.	9.4	8.3	11.0	
			*15.7	13.8	18.4	
Soup, see Soups, canned.						
Spiced, corned and pickled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		13.8	59.1	
				12.0	51.4	
Stew	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	2.9	12.8	6.7	
			*2.5	11.1	5.8	
Stew, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	9.0	8.3	1.6	
			7.8	7.2	1.4	
Tongue, pickled	60	2 oz.		7.7	12.3	
				12.8	20.5	
Tripe, corned and pickled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.2	13.4	1.4	
			0.2	11.7	1.2	
Beefsteak sauce, com.	5	1 t., sc.	0.8	0.1	Trace	
			16.0	2.3	1.2	
Beets, common red	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. diced	8.8	1.6	0.1	
			*8.8	1.6	0.1	
Beets, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.5	2.3	0.1	
			*6.5	2.3	0.1	
Beets, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.5	1.5	0.1	
			11.5	1.5	0.1	
Beet greens	100	1 c.	4.2	2.0	0.3	
			*4.2	2.0	0.3	
Beet greens, cooked	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.3	3.0	—	
			3.2	2.2	—	
Bel Paese, Italian cheese	30	1 oz.		6.4	7.0	
				21.3	23.5	
"Biotes" (acorns)	100		48.0	8.1	37.4	
			48.0	8.1	37.4	

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			B
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Crackers	130	1 c.	85.8	10.4	16.2	530
			66.0	8.0	12.5	
Nuts	35	6 (whole)	4.1	9.7	19.7	240
			11.7	27.6	56.3	
see Rice, wild.						
ies	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.0	0.8	0.6	30
			*8.4	1.3	1.0	
ies, stewed without	120	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	4.6	0.8	—	25
			*3.8	0.7	Trace	
ies, canned, see Fruits,						
ry juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.4	0.4	—	35
			7.0	0.3	—	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.0	3.0	205
				18.7	1.3	
sify	100		16.3	3.1	0.3	80
			*16.3	3.1	0.3	
ange	50		9.1	1.6	1.8	60
			*18.2	3.2	3.7	
.	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		22.7	15.6	240
				19.7	13.6	
paste	6	1 t.	0.2	1.2	0.7	12
			*4.0	20.1	12.0	
dding or sausage	60	2 oz.		8.9	20.7	230
				14.8	34.6	
e	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.0	1.2	190
				18.7	0.5	
ies	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	9.7	0.6	0.6	50
			*9.7	0.6	0.6	
ies, canned, water pack	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.8	0.5	0.5	50
			9.0	0.4	0.4	
ies, canned, juice pack	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.2	0.5	0.5	60
			11.0	0.4	0.4	
ies, canned, in syrup	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	31.2	0.5	0.5	135
			26.0	0.4	0.4	
ies, canned, see also						
, canned.						
ry juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.9	0.1	—	60
			*12.4	0.1	—	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		44.7	2.8	210
				19.4	1.2	
rst	60	2 oz.		7.0	13.1	150
				11.7	21.8	
sausage	75	6 sl.	0.2	14.0	13.2	180
			0.3	18.7	17.6	
all meat	75	6 sl.		10.8	13.3	170
				14.4	17.8	
added cereal	75	6 sl.	2.7	11.1	11.9	165
			3.6	14.8	15.9	
cheese	30	2 T.		2.8	7.3	80
				9.4	24.4	
arrow	20	1 T.	0	0.4	18.6	175
			0	2.2	92.8	
leaves and stems	75	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.2	2.1	0.3	12
			*0.3	2.8	0.4	
beef, canned	240	1 c.	0.7	6.2	0.2	30
			0.3	2.6	0.1	

B	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
	Bouillon, beef, cube	3.6	1 cube	0.2 5.8	0.4 11.4	0.1 1.8
	Bouillon, canned, conc.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1 0.1	4.7 3.9	— —
	Bouillon, tomato, canned	240	1 c.	1.0 0.4	2.6 1.1	0.7 0.3
	Borril	7	1 t.	0.2 3.4	2.7 38.8	Trace 0.2
Brains, fresh:						
	Beef	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	2.5 1.1	22.1 9.6	21.4 9.3
	Horse	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		28.1 12.2	29.2 12.6
	Lamb	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		21.8 9.5	16.8 7.3
	Pork	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		26.9 11.7	23.7 10.3
	Veal	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		23.8 10.6	20.7 9.0
Brains, cooked:						
	Calf, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		13.8 12.0	6.7 5.8
	Sheep, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		13.5 11.7	7.7 6.7
	Bran Flakes, Kellogg	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.3 71.5	4.0 13.3	0.7 2.3
	Bran Flakes, Post	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	22.4 74.6	3.6 12.0	0.5 1.8
	Bran, wheat, Pillsbury	3	1 T.	1.7 57.5	0.5 16.5	0.1 4.6
	Bran, whole, Post	3	1 T.	2.0 66.6	0.4 13.9	0.1 3.0
	Braunschweiger sausage	60	2 oz.	0 0	9.2 15.4	14.3 23.8
	Brazil nuts	30	4 av.	1.2 *4.1	4.1 13.8	18.4 61.5
Breads:						
	Alfalfa	25	1 sl.	16.0 64.0	4.9 19.6	0.3 1.3
	Boston brown	30	1 sm. sl.	13.0 43.3	2.0 6.7	1.0 3.3
	Buns, cinnamon	50	1 med.	28.0 56.0	3.9 7.8	2.7 5.4
	Corn	100	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ " sq.	43.6 43.6	6.6 6.6	7.3 7.3
	Cracked wheat, Ward	25	1 sl.	11.9 47.9	2.1 8.6	0.7 2.9
	Crumbs, white, dried	55	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	41.8 76.0	7.2 13.0	1.1 2.0
	Flatbread	100		73.6 73.6	14.9 14.9	0.5 0.5
	French	20	1 sl.	10.8 53.8	1.6 8.1	0.2 1.0
	Ginger	60	1 sq.	30.8 51.4	2.5 4.2	7.1 11.9
	Gluten wheat	25	1 sl.	7.2 28.9	6.2 25.0	0.9 3.6
	Graham, made with milk	30	1 sl.	14.1 47.0	3.0 10.0	1.2 4.0

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			B
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
made with water	30	1 sl.	14.7	2.7	0.9	80
Rusk	15	1	49.0	9.0	3.0	
			10.5	1.8	0.7	55
	30	1 sl.	70.4	12.1	5.1	
			5.9	10.0	3.8	100
	25	1 cracker	19.7	33.6	12.8	
			18.6	2.8	1.3	100
nickel	25	1 sl.	74.2	11.1	5.0	
			12.4	1.7	0.3	50
	20	1 sl.	49.7	6.7	1.2	
			10.6	1.8	0.6	55
			53.0	9.0	3.0	
h	40	1	22.3	3.4	1.0	115
enriched	50	1, 4½" x 2½"	55.7	8.5	2.5	
			27.0	4.1	3.0	155
t, unenriched	50	1	54.1	8.2	6.1	
			28.0	3.9	2.7	155
na	50	1	56.0	7.8	5.4	
			28.3	4.3	1.1	145
	25	1 sl.	56.5	8.5	2.2	
			13.3	2.3	0.2	65
ack	30	1 sl.	53.2	9.0	0.6	
			14.7	2.9	0.2	75
ewish	30	1 sl.	48.9	9.6	0.6	
			15.6	2.7	0.3	80
hole	30	1 sl.	52.0	9.1	1.1	
			11.4	3.6	0.2	65
ad wheat	25	1 sl.	34.7	11.9	0.6	
			12.9	3.0	0.1	65
	20	1 sl.	51.5	11.9	0.3	
			11.0	1.7	0.2	50
(average)	25	1 sl.	55.2	8.4	1.0	
			13.1	2.3	0.3	65
milk	25	1 sl.	52.6	9.2	1.3	
			12.4	2.2	0.9	65
enriched	25	1 sl.	49.8	9.0	3.6	
			13.1	2.1	0.5	65
wheat	25	1 sl.	52.3	8.5	2.0	
			12.0	2.4	0.9	65
aire pudding	50	1 sq	48.0	9.5	3.5	
			13.4	3.6	4.7	115
ack	5	1, 3" x 1½"	*26.8	7.2	9.4	
			3.7	0.5	0.5	20
it, Hawaiian	100	½ c.	73.5	9.8	9.9	
			35.2	0.1	0.2	145
ffs, see Crackers, Toast,			35.2	0.1	0.2	
t foods, see Cereals.						
eeese	30	½" sl. 5# loaf		6.6	9.0	110
eeese, American	20	1½ cu. in.		22.0	30.0	
				4.0	5.5	70
mage de, American	25	1½" x 1" x ½"		20.3	27.5	
			0.4	4.0	5.3	65
mage de, European	25	1½" x 1" x ½"	*1.4	15.9	21.0	
				5.2	5.6	75
abbit molasses, Gold				20.9	22.4	
	190	½ c.	140.0	0.9	0	575
			*73.7	0.5	0	

B

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
<i>Br'er Rabbit</i> molasses, Green					
Label	190	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	133.2	1.7	0
			*70.1	0.9	0
Brewer's yeast, com.	11	2 t.	4.3	4.2	0.2
			39.0	38.0	2.0
Broad beans, green	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.3	6.1	0.5
			*13.8	8.1	0.6
Broad beans, green pods	100		11.9	3.0	0.3
			11.9	3.0	0.3
Broad beans, cooked	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.9	5.1	—
			*7.1	4.1	Trace
Broccoli	120	1 c.	5.0	4.0	0.2
			*4.2	3.3	0.2
Broccoli, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.4	3.0	0.1
			*0.4	3.0	0.1
Broilers, see Chicken.					
Broth, see Soups.					
Brussels sprouts	100	1 c.	7.6	4.4	0.5
			7.6	4.4	0.5
Brussels sprouts, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.7	2.4	—
			*1.7	2.4	Trace
Brussels sprouts, canned	125	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	3.6	1.9	0.1
			*2.9	1.5	0.1
Buckwheat, corn and wheat flour, Aunt Jemima, Quaker	100	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	69.8	11.2	1.9
			69.8	11.2	1.9
Buckwheat flour (sifted)	115	1 c.	89.6	7.4	1.4
			77.9	6.4	1.2
Buckwheat preparations, self- rising	115	1 c.	84.4	9.4	1.4
			73.4	8.2	1.2
Buffalofish	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		41.5	5.4
				18.0	2.3
Bullheads	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		33.1	47.2
				14.4	20.6
Burdock leaves	100		7.4	4.5	0.1
			7.4	4.5	0.1
Burdock root	100		21.1	3.0	0.1
			*21.1	3.0	0.1
<i>Burnett</i> extracts, A.P.: †					
Almond (35%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Celery (65%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Cherry (18%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Lemon (80%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Maple, imitation (24%)	6	1 t.	1.8	0	0
			30.0	0	0
Mint (85%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Onion, imitation (48%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Orange (82%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0

† Alcohol percentage by volume; calories not computed since there is a variable of alcohol through volatilization during cooking of foods.

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				B
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
Extracts, A.P.: †							
Apple (20%)	6	1 t.	2.8	0	0	12	
			47.0				
Apple, imitation (65%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0	—	
			0	0	0		
Apricot (20%)	6	1 t.	2.8	0	0	12	
			47.0	0	0		
Apricot (4%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0	
			0	0	0		
Apricot (20%)	6	1 t.	2.8	0	0	12	
			47.0	0	0		
Apricot (35%)	5	1 t.	0.4	0	0	2	
			7.0	0	0		
Asparagus green (65%)	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0	
			0	0	0		
Asparagus	10	1" x 1" x ½"	—	0.1	8.5	80	
			—	1.0	85.0		
Avocado, melted	10	1 T.	—	0.1	8.5	80	
			—	1.0	85.0		
Beans	75	¾ c.	21.8	7.1	0.5	125	
			29.1	9.4	0.6		
Beans, cooked	100	½ c.	17.1	7.1	—	100	
			*17.1	7.1	Trace		
Beef	230	½ lb.		41.4	25.3	405	
				18.0	11.0		
Bilk, see Milks, cultured.							
Butter	20	12	0.7	5.6	12.2	140	
			3.5	27.9	61.2		
Butter, notched	5	¾" sq. x ¾"	4.1	0	0.6	20	
			*82.0	0	12.0		

C

Cheese	85	½ c.	3.6	1.2	0.2	20	
			*4.4	1.4	0.2		
Cheese, boiled	130	¾ c.	1.0	1.4	—	10	
			*0.8	1.1	Trace		
Cheese, boiled	130	¾ c.	1.7	1.0	—	11	
			*1.3	0.8	Trace		
Celery or celery	110	1 c.	2.6	1.5	0.1	20	
			2.4	1.4	0.1		
Celery, cooked	100	¾ c.	2.0	1.0	0.1	13	
			2.0	1.0	0.1		
Celery, etto	100	¾ c.	6.1	3.3	0.6	45	
			6.1	3.3	0.6		
Celery, etto, cooked	100	½ c.	5.6	2.9	0.5	40	
			5.6	2.9	0.5		
Celery	60	½ c.	1.8	1.1	0.1	15	
			*3.5	1.8	0.2		
Celery	120	1 c.	7.2	3.9	0.8	55	
			6.0	3.3	0.7		
Celery, boiled	100	½ c.	1.1	1.3	—	10	
			*1.1	1.3	Trace		
Cheddar, Italian cheese	5	1 t.		1.7	1.1	15	
				34.3	22.0		
Cheese	50	1 sl.	29.3	4.2	0.1	140	
			*58.7	8.4	0.3		
Cheddar	50	1 sl.	27.9	2.9	5.9	180	
			55.9	5.9	11.7		

Footnote, page 620

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cakes:					
Foundation, frosted	60	1 sl.	36.2	3.0	5.8
			60.4	5.0	9.2
Fruit, dark	60	1 sl.	33.5	3.1	8.3
			55.9	5.2	13.8
Fruit, dark, com.	60	1 sl.	37.8	2.9	8.3
			63.0	4.8	13.8
Fruit, light, com.	60	1 sl.	39.0	2.6	7.5
			65.0	4.4	12.5
Jelly roll	50	1 sl.	27.7	2.4	9.5
			*55.4	4.8	19.0
Plain	50	1 sl.	28.5	3.2	4.1
			57.0	6.4	8.2
Plain, frosted	60	1 sl.	37.3	3.1	3.7
			62.1	5.2	6.2
Pound	50	1 sl.	24.7	3.6	11.7
			49.3	7.1	23.5
Rich	50	1 sl.	27.1	2.5	8.9
			54.2	5.0	17.7
Rich, frosted	50	1 sl.	29.1	2.2	7.3
			58.2	4.4	14.7
Scones (with egg)	100	1	59.5	9.2	10.5
			*59.5	9.2	10.5
Scones (without egg)	100	1	57.1	8.4	13.2
			*57.1	8.4	13.2
Shortbread	25	1 sq.	16.4	1.4	5.7
			65.6	5.8	23.0
Sponge	50	1 sq.	26.7	4.7	3.5
			53.5	9.5	7.0
Calavos (Avocado)	14	1 T.	0.8	0.3	2.8
			6.0	2.1	20.0
Small	85	$\frac{1}{2}$	5.1	1.8	17.0
			6.0	2.1	20.0
Diced	150	1 c.	9.0	3.2	30.0
			6.0	2.1	20.0
Pulp	230	1 c.	13.7	4.8	46.0
			6.0	2.1	20.0
Sieved pulp	230	1 c.	10.1	4.8	46.0
			4.4	2.1	20.0
Calf's foot jelly	45	2 T.	7.8	1.9	—
			17.4	4.3	—
Calves' liver, see Veal					
Camembert cheese, European	40	1 triangle		9.0	10.5
				22.2	26.3
<i>Campbell's</i> strained baby soups, see page 703.					
Canada Dry ginger ale	225	1 c.	20.3		
			9.0		
Candy:					
Butterscotch	5	$\frac{3}{4}$ " sq. x $\frac{3}{8}$ "	4.1	0	0.6
			*82.0	0	12.0
Caramels	10	$\frac{7}{8}$ " sq. x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	7.8	0.2	1.2
			*78.0	2.0	12.0
Chocolate, bitter	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	1.1	0.3	3.2
			18.0	5.5	52.9
Chocolate, sweetened, plain	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	3.6	0.1	1.8
			60.0	2.0	29.8
Chocolate, sweetened, milk .	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	3.2	0.4	2.0
			54.0	6.0	33.5

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure	Carb.	Prot.	Fat	
te, sweetened, milk,						
Almonds	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	3.1	0.5	2.3	35
			51.0	8.0	38.6	
te creams	14	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " diam. x $\frac{3}{4}$ "	10.1	0.6	2.0	60
			72.0	4.0	14.0	
.	8	1" sq. x $\frac{5}{8}$ "	7.3	0	0	30
			*91.0	0	0	
plain	45	2" sq. x $\frac{5}{8}$ "	39.6	0.9	1.8	185
			88.0	2.0	4.0	
uits:						
ots	20	1 med.	17.3	—	—	70
			86.5	0.6	0.2	
ries	10	3	5.6	—	0	25
			*55.8	0.6	0	
.	15	1	11.0	0.5	—	45
			73.7	3.5	0.2	
.	30	1 oz.	22.8	0.4	0.2	95
			75.9	1.3	0.6	
apple	50	1 sl.	40.0	0.4	0.2	165
			80.0	0.8	0.4	
.	8	3 balls, $\frac{3}{4}$ " diam.	7.9	0	0	30
			*99.0	0	0	
mallows	30	5, $1\frac{1}{4}$ " diam.	24.0	2.0	—	105
			*80.0	6.7	—	
t brittle	15	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " x 3"	10.1	1.8	2.7	75
			67.0	12.0	18.0	
, home-made	10	1 sq.	8.8	—	0.6	40
			*87.8	0.2	6.2	
ee sugars and syrups.						
upe	100	$\frac{1}{4}$, 5" diam.	5.7	0.6	0.2	25
			*5.7	0.6	0.2	
.	5	1 t.	0.3	0.2	Trace	2
			5.0	3.2	0.5	
o, Italian sausage	60	2 oz.	0.8	12.5	24.1	245
			1.4	20.8	40.2	
ola juice	225	1 c.	23.2	0.2	0.2	100
			10.3	0.1	0.1	
on milk, evaporated	15	1 T.	1.5	1.0	1.2	20
			*9.9	6.8	7.9	
ean	10	4" piece	6.7	0.6	0.1	30
			67.0	5.7	1.1	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	43.7	2.3	2.3	200
			19.0	1.0	1.0	
en moss (Irish)	10	1 T.	—	0.7	—	3
			0.4	6.8	—	
juice, Cellu	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.2	0.4	0.2	35
			*6.0	0.3	0.2	
ops	100	1 c.	7.2	3.2	—	45
			7.2	3.2	—	
, old, raw	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. grated	4.3	0.6	—	20
			*5.4	0.7	Trace	
g, boiled	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.4	0.7	—	15
			*4.5	0.9	Trace	
boiled	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.2	0.4	—	15
			*4.3	0.6	Trace	
ed	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	7.6	1.0	0.3	40
			7.6	1.0	0.3	
cated	100		80.3	7.7	3.6	395
			80.3	7.7	3.6	
nut kernels, raw	100		29.4	21.6	39.0	570
			29.4	21.6	39.0	

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cashew nut kernels, fried in cocoanut oil	15	8	2.0 13.4	4.3 28.7	7.9 52.4
Cassava:					
Bread	25	1 sl.	20.0 79.0	2.3 9.1	0.1 0.3
Root	100		27.1 27.1	1.6 1.6	0.2 0.2
Starch	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	53.3 88.8	0.3 0.5	0.1 0.1
Sweet	100		28.4 *28.4	1.1 1.1	0.2 0.2
Wafers	25		20.9 *83.6	0.3 1.1	Trace 0.2
Catfish	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		33.1 14.4	47.2 20.6
Catfish, fried	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	7.5 *6.5	21.6 18.8	12.0 10.5
Catfish, steamed	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		23.5 20.4	4.3 3.7
Catjang-peas, green pods	100		6.6 *6.6	3.3 3.3	0.4 0.4
Catsup, tomato	20	1 T.	4.8 24.0	0.4 2.0	0.2 1.0
Cauliflower	125	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.9 *2.8	2.3 1.8	0.6 0.5
Cauliflower, cooked	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	1.4 *1.4	1.6 1.6	0.4 0.4
Cauliflower, canned	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	3.0 3.0	1.0 1.0	0.2 0.2
Caviar, sturgeon, Russian	15	2 t.	1.1 7.6	4.5 30.0	3.0 19.7
Celeriac, cooked	100	1 med.	2.0 *2.0	1.5 1.5	0.2 0.2
Celeriac roots	90	1 med.	7.9 8.8	1.5 1.7	0.3 0.3
Celery:					
Raw	40	2, 7" stalks	0.5 *1.3	0.4 1.1	Trace 0.1
Cooked	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	0.8 *0.8	0.3 0.3	— Trace
Cabbage	110	1 c.	2.6 2.4	1.5 1.4	0.1 0.1
Cabbage, cooked	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	2.0 2.0	1.0 1.0	0.1 0.1
Extract, Burnett, A.P.	5	1 t.	0 0	0 0	0 0
Root (celeriace)	90	1 med.	7.9 8.8	1.5 1.7	0.3 0.3
Soup, canned	230	1 c.	11.5 5.0	4.8 2.1	6.4 2.8
Soup, canned, conc.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	9.5 6.8	2.0 1.4	2.2 1.6
Soup, cream of, canned, com.	230	1 c.	9.2 4.0	1.8 0.8	11.5 5.0
Cereal coffee infusion	240	1 c.	3.4 1.4	0.5 0.2	— —

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Eat:						
Bran, Kellogg . . .	3	1 T.	1.7	0.4	0.1	9
			*58.0	13.8	4.5	
Flakes, Kellogg . . .	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.3	4.0	0.7	110
			71.5	13.3	2.3	
Flakes, Post . . .	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	22.4	3.6	0.5	110
			74.6	12.0	1.8	
Flakes, Postbury . . .	3	1 T.	1.7	0.5	0.1	9
			57.5	16.5	4.6	
Flakes, Post . . .	3	1 T.	2.0	0.4	0.1	11
			66.6	13.9	3.0	
Flakes, Kellogg . . .	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	26.2	2.2	0.1	115
			87.4	7.4	0.2	
Flakes, Quaker . . .	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.9	2.6	0.1	115
			82.9	8.7	0.3	
Flakes, General Mills . . .	35	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	26.4	2.8	0.9	125
			81.0	8.0	2.5	
Flakes, Toasties . . .	30	1 c.	25.6	2.8	0.1	115
			85.5	7.1	0.2	
Flakes, General Mills	30	1 heaping c.	20.2	4.6	2.1	120
			67.5	15.5	7.0	
Flakes, Heinz . . .	30	1 c.	25.0	3.2	0.3	120
			83.2	10.5	0.9	
Flakes, White House . . .	30	1 c.	24.4	2.7	0.6	115
			81.2	8.9	2.0	
Flakes, Kellogg . . .	30	1 c.	26.5	1.8	0.1	115
			88.4	6.0	0.3	
Flakes, Quaker . . .	15	1 c.	13.3	0.9	—	60
			88.8	6.2	0.2	
Flakes . . .	30	1 c.	22.7	3.0	0.4	110
			*75.8	10.0	1.4	
Eat:						
Flakes, Quaker . . .	30	1 c.	24.1	3.3	0.1	115
			80.2	10.9	0.4	
Flakes, Quaker . . .	30	1 c.	22.7	4.1	0.3	110
			75.6	13.7	1.1	
"Force" Whole wheat flakes, Hecker—H-O	30	1 c.	23.8	3.4	0.3	115
			*79.5	11.4	1.1	
Holland Rusk . . .	15	1	10.5	1.8	0.7	55
			70.4	12.1	5.1	
Krispies, Kellogg . . .	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.8	2.7	0.2	115
			83.7	8.9	0.8	
Krumbles, Kellogg . . .	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.6	2.8	0.4	115
			82.0	9.2	1.2	
Muffets, Quaker . . .	23	1	17.5	2.6	0.3	85
			75.6	11.1	1.4	
Puffed, Quaker . . .	15	1 c.	11.3	2.3	0.2	55
			75.4	15.6	1.6	
Rippled, Loose-Wiles . . .	10	1 biscuit	7.9	1.1	0.3	40
			*78.8	11.1	2.5	
Shredded, N. B. C. . .	30	1	24.5	3.3	0.5	120
			81.6	11.0	1.6	
Shredded Ralston . . .	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	23.2	2.6	0.3	110
			74.0	8.5	1.0	

C

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cereals:					
Ready to Eat:					
Toasted whole wheat with added wheat germ, Blue Cross	30	1 c.	21.3	4.4	0.6
			70.9	14.7	2.1
Wheaties	30	1 c.	23.5	3.3	0.5
			78.3	11.0	1.7
Whole wheat biscuit, Kellogg	20	1, 2½" x 2½"	16.4	2.0	0.3
			82.2	10.1	1.7
Whole wheat flakes, Kellogg	30	½ c.	24.0	3.1	0.3
			79.9	10.4	1.1
Miscellaneous:					
Corn-Soya Shreds, Kellogg	30	⅔ c.	22.2	5.4	0.1
			74.0	18.0	0.3
Grape-Nuts, Post	30	½ c.	24.9	3.2	0.2
			83.2	10.6	0.6
Grape-Nuts Flakes, Post	30	1 c.	23.2	3.5	0.4
			77.3	11.7	1.2
Pep, Kellogg	30	⅔ c.	23.1	3.7	0.6
			77.1	12.2	1.9
Triscuit, N. B. C. . . .	10	2	8.2	1.1	0.2
			81.7	10.5	1.6
Cereals:					
Requiring Cooking:					
Barley:					
Cream of	50	½ c.	38.0	5.6	0.8
			76.1	11.1	1.6
Corn:					
Hominy Grits, Quaker . . .	50	½ c.	38.5	5.0	0.3
			77.0	9.9	0.7
Hominy Grits, Pillsbury	50	½ c.	39.0	4.4	0.3
			77.9	8.8	0.6
Hominy (raw)	50	½ c.	39.5	4.2	0.3
			79.0	8.3	0.6
Cooked	200	1 c., sc.	28.0	4.0	—
			14.0	2.0	—
Hecker's cream	50	½ c.	38.6	4.9	0.2
			77.3	9.8	0.4
Parched	45	½ c.	32.5	5.2	3.8
			72.3	11.5	8.4
Samp, coarse hominy	50	½ c.	39.7	4.2	0.3
			*79.4	8.3	0.5
Cornmeal:					
White, Pillsbury	15	1 T.	11.7	1.2	0.2
			78.3	8.3	1.1
White, Quaker	15	1 T.	11.6	1.3	0.2
			77.3	8.9	1.5
Yellow, Pillsbury	15	1 T.	11.8	1.2	0.2
			78.7	8.3	1.3
Yellow, Quaker	15	1 T.	11.7	1.3	0.1
			77.8	8.5	1.0
Cooked	100	½ c.	11.9	1.4	0.8
			11.9	1.4	0.8
Oats:					
Crushed, Grandmother's	30	½ c.	19.6	4.5	2.0
			65.4	14.9	6.5

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C Cal.
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
g Cooking:						
Oats (New style), Hecker, H-O	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	19.9 *66.2	4.5 15.2	2.2 7.3	120
Other's Quaker, Quick Mother's, or Quick Quaker	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	19.2 64.0	5.3 17.8	1.8 6.1	120
illed, raw	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	19.9 66.3	5.0 16.7	2.2 7.3	120
illed, cooked, calc.	250	1 c.	20.0 8.0	5.0 2.0	2.2 0.9	120
illed, Purity	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	18.5 61.6	5.0 16.3	2.0 6.1	115
illed	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	22.5 22.5	2.3 2.3	0.9 0.9	110
met cereal	20	1 heaping T.	16.1 80.7	1.4 7.2	Trace 0.3	70
eam of	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	23.9 79.6	2.2 7.4	0.1 0.4	110
atural brown, White House	20	1 heaping T.	15.3 76.1	1.3 6.7	0.5 2.2	70
White, White House	20	1 heaping T.	16.2 81.0	1.3 6.4	0.1 0.6	75
ream of	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	35.9 71.8	6.0 12.0	0.8 1.6	180
eat:						
Breakfast wheat, Heinz	20	2 T.	15.5 77.7	2.1 10.5	0.2 0.9	75
Cracked wheat	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	23.0 76.5	3.3 11.1	0.5 1.7	115
ream Farina, Hecker— H-O	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	23.3 *77.7	2.8 9.5	0.3 1.1	110
ream of Wheat	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.8 72.5	3.5 11.8	0.7 2.4	110
ream of Wheat, cooked	170	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	24.7 14.5	3.4 2.0	— —	115
ream of Wheat, "New 5-Minute"	20	2 T.	14.6 73.0	2.4 12.0	0.3 1.3	70
arina, Grandmother's, A. & P.	20	2 T.	15.0 75.0	2.2 10.8	0.1 0.6	70
arina, Pillsbury	20	2 T.	14.9 74.6	2.1 10.5	0.1 0.4	70
arina, Quaker	20	2 T.	15.1 75.4	2.4 11.8	0.1 0.6	70
laked, cooked	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.4 12.0	2.6 2.2	0.2 0.2	70
Maltes Cereal	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	23.0 76.7	5.0 16.7	0.5 1.7	115

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cereals:					
Requiring Cooking:					
Wheat:					
<i>Pettijohn's, Quaker</i>	20	2 T.	14.7	2.0	0.4
			73.3	10.1	1.9
<i>Ralston, wheat cereal</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.0	4.5	0.5
			70.0	15.0	1.7
<i>Rolled, steam-cooked</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.7	3.1	0.5
			72.3	10.2	1.8
<i>Rolled, with all the bran,</i> <i>Blue Cross</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	22.0	3.1	0.5
			73.2	10.5	1.6
<i>Wheathearts, Sperry</i>	30	3 T.	21.7	3.9	0.8
			72.3	13.0	2.7
<i>Wheat Oats, Ralston</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	20.8	4.2	1.7
			69.3	14.0	6.9
<i>Wheatena</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.7	3.2	0.8
			72.7	10.8	2.5
<i>Wheatworth cereal,</i> <i>N. B. C.</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.2	4.2	0.6
			70.8	14.0	2.0
<i>Cervellata fresca, Milan sausage</i>	60	2 oz.	0.3	6.0	20.6
			0.5	10.1	34.4
<i>Chard, leaves only</i>	100	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.8	2.6	0.4
			4.8	2.6	0.4
<i>Chard, leaves and stalks</i>	100	1 c.	4.4	1.4	0.2
			4.4	1.4	0.2
<i>Chard, stalks only</i>	125	1 c.	3.6	1.3	0.1
			2.9	1.0	0.1
<i>Chard, cooked</i>	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	3.0	2.4	0.2
			3.0	2.4	0.2
<i>Chayote, fruit (Chiote)</i>	100		6.8	1.0	0.1
			6.8	1.0	0.1
<i>Chayote, leaves (Chiote)</i>	100		3.9	3.1	0.7
			3.9	3.2	0.7
<i>Chayote, roots (Chiote)</i>	100		19.6	1.8	0.1
			19.6	1.8	0.1
Cheese:					
<i>American, Kraft</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ " sl. 5# loaf		6.8	9.3
				22.5	31.0
<i>American, pale</i>	15	2" x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	Trace	4.3	5.4
			*0.3	28.8	35.9
<i>American, red</i>	15	2" x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ "		4.4	5.7
				29.6	38.3
<i>Bel Paese</i>	30	1 oz.		6.3	7.0
				21.3	23.5
<i>Bondon</i>	30	2 T.		2.8	7.3
				9.4	24.4
<i>Brick, American</i>	20	$1\frac{1}{2}$ cu. in.		4.0	5.5
				20.3	27.5
<i>Brick, Kraft</i>	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ " sl. 5# loaf		6.6	9.0
				22.0	30.0
<i>Brie, European</i>	25	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{4}$ "		5.2	8.1
				20.9	32.4
<i>Caciocavallo, Italian</i>	5	1 t.		1.7	1.1
				34.3	22.0
<i>Camembert, European</i>	40	1 triangle		9.0	10.5
				22.2	26.3
<i>Chateau, Borden</i>	30	3, $\frac{3}{16}$ " sl. $\frac{1}{4}$ "	1.8	5.6	7.7
			*6.1	18.8	25.5

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"	1.0 *4.1	6.9 27.7	9.2 36.8	120
can (store)	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"	0.3 *1.4	7.8 21.2	9.2 37.0	120
tinian	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"	0.2 *0.7	7.8 31.2	7.6 26.0	95
lian	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"		6.0 24.0	8.4 33.8	105
sh	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"	0.8 *3.2	6.9 27.8	7.6 30.5	100
American	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"		8.3 33.1	1.2 4.9	45
e	20	1 cu. in.	1.0 *5.2	5.0 25.0	6.2 30.9	80
e	55	½ c.	2.4 *4.3	11.5 20.9	0.6 1.0	65
e, Jewish	50	½ c.		14.0 28.0	4.5 9.0	100
e, potted	50	½ c.		10.5 21.1	17.0 34.0	200
e, skim milk	50	½ c.		11.6 23.3	0.5 1.0	50
nmieres	25	1½" x 1" x ¾"	1.2 *4.8	4.3 17.4	5.1 20.5	70
a, American	30	½ pkg.	Trace *0.2	3.0 10.0	11.4 38.0	120
a, English	30	2" x 1" x ½"	0.4 *1.3	1.6 5.3	16.8 56.1	165
a, demi-sel, French	30	2" x 1" x ½"		4.3 14.5	11.9 39.9	125
ed Old English, Kraft	30	3, ⅜" sl. ⅜" loaf		6.0 20.0	10.1 33.5	120
yshire	20	1 cu. in.	0.9 *4.4	4.9 24.5	7.0 35.2	90
h	30	1 oz.		11.1 37.1	5.3 17.7	95
n	30	1½" cube	1.9 *6.3	7.1 23.5	10.2 34.0	130
n, American	30	1½" cube		9.3 30.9	6.8 22.7	100
nenthaler	30	2 cu. in.	0.4 *1.4	8.5 28.4	8.5 28.5	115
nage de Brie	25	1½" x 1" x ¾"	0.3 *1.4	4.0 15.9	5.3 21.0	65
cream	30	2" x 1" x ½"	0.7 *2.4	7.8 25.9	10.1 33.7	130
amelost, Norwegian	30	1 oz.	2.9 *9.8	12.9 42.1	1.0 3.4	75
ceester	20	1 cu. in.	0.9 *4.4	5.6 28.0	5.6 28.0	80
at's milk, French	30	1 oz.	4.6 *15.3	10.0 33.6	8.7 25.9	140
at's milk, Norwegian	30	1 oz.	14.0 *46.8	2.2 7.6	5.9 19.9	120
rgonzola	15	1" x ½" x 2½"	0.2 *1.6	3.8 25.2	5.2 34.7	65
oda, American	30	1 oz.		8.8 29.6	7.3 24.5	105
oda, Hollander	30	1 oz.		8.1 27.0	8.8 29.4	115
wa	30	1 oz.	0.4 *1.4	10.3 34.2	9.1 30.4	130

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cheese:					
Gruyère	30	2" x 1" x 1"	1.4	9.9	8.4
			*4.8	33.0	28.2
Leyden	20	1 cu. in.	0.2	7.2	2.2
			*1.0	35.9	11.0
Liederkrantz	30	1 oz.		5.0	7.3
				16.8	24.5
Limburg, American	40	1 triangle		11.4	12.0
				28.5	29.8
Limburg, European	40	1 triangle		8.5	7.8
				21.3	19.6
Limburger, Kraft	30	3, $\frac{3}{16}$ " sl. $\frac{1}{4}$ "		4.8	7.5
				16.0	25.0
Livarot	25	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	2.0	7.9	5.5
			*8.0	31.8	22.0
Mainz, hand	30	2 cu. in.		11.1	1.7
				37.3	5.6
Mozzarella	30	1 oz.	0.5	8.4	7.3
			*1.8	28.1	24.3
Münster	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " cube	2.0	5.0	7.8
			*6.9	16.9	25.9
Münster, American	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " cube		6.7	9.3
				22.2	31.0
Mysost, American	30	1 oz.		2.9	0.8
				9.9	2.8
Mysost (Scandinavian Pri- most)	30	1 oz.		4.2	10.3
				14.0	34.5
Neufchâtel	30	2 T.	0.5	5.6	8.2
			*1.5	18.7	27.4
Neufchâtel, American . . .	30	2 T.	0.8	6.4	5.4
			*2.9	21.3	18.2
Noekkelost	30	1 oz.	2.1	9.2	4.9
			*7.0	30.6	16.3
Oka, see Port du Salut.					
Pabst-ett	15	1 T.	1.0	3.0	3.6
			6.6	19.9	24.3
Pabst-ett compounded Swiss cheese	30	1 oz.	1.4	7.1	6.5
			4.6	23.6	21.8
Parmesan	5	2 t.		2.2	1.0
				43.5	19.1
Parmesan (Formaggio) . . .	5	2 t.		2.5	1.1
				49.4	22.7
Parmesan (Reggian), grated	5	2 t.		1.7	1.4
				34.8	27.3
Philadelphia cream, Kraft .	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.	Trace	3.0	11.4
			*0.2	10.0	38.0
Pimento (Cheddar)	20	1 cu. in.		3.2	6.4
				16.0	32.2
Pimento, Kraft	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ " sl. 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ " loaf		6.6	9.1
				22.0	30.5
Pineapple	25	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ "	0.7	7.5	9.7
			2.6	29.9	38.9
Pont l'Evêque	20	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	1.3	4.1	5.0
			*6.7	20.3	25.0
Pont l'Evêque, American . .	20	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "		5.0	5.9
				25.2	29.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items	Size of portion.		Value of portion			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Salut (Oka, Trappist)	25	1½" x 1" x ¾"		5.5	6.3	80
	50	½ c.		21.2	25.2	100
				14.0	4.5	200
Cottage cheese	50	½ c.		28.0	9.0	110
	30	1 oz.		10.5	17.0	155
				21.1	34.0	195
er milk	30	1 oz.	0.9	7.1	12.9	160
			*3.0	23.8	43.1	115
romana	50	½ c.		3.4	19.7	55
				6.9	39.5	125
salata	30	1 oz.	0.6	4.1	15.4	105
			*2.0	13.8	51.3	100
o (Pecorino)	30	1 oz.		9.3	8.3	105
				31.2	27.7	100
ort	15	1" x ½" x 2½"	0.3	3.4	4.4	105
			*1.8	22.6	29.5	100
go	5	1 t. grated		2.1	0.1	125
				41.7	2.0	105
	30	1 oz.	0.4	10.2	8.6	100
			*1.3	34.0	28.6	105
rzza	30	1 oz.	0.5	8.0	7.7	100
			*1.8	26.6	25.8	100
case (Schmierkäse)	50	½ c.		14.0	4.5	25
				28.0	9.0	105
ed	10	2 t.		1.8	1.9	105
				18.6	19.0	105
n	25	1½" x 1½" x 1½"		7.3	7.8	105
				29.0	31.2	130
see Cheddar, American.			0.4	8.3	10.4	120
	30	1 sl.	*1.3	27.6	34.9	105
				8.7	9.2	105
, European	30	1 sl.		29.2	30.6	105
				7.9	7.8	125
s, Kraft	30	½" sl. 5# loaf		26.5	26.0	135
			1.3	7.4	9.7	135
s, Russian	30	2" x 1" x 1"	*4.4	24.9	32.3	105
			1.8	6.9	10.9	105
s, Swedish	30	2" x 1" x 1"	*6.1	23.2	36.4	100
pist, see Port du Salut.			1.8	5.4	7.5	105
eta, Kraft	30	3, ⅓" sl. ½#	*6.0	18.0	25.0	105
				8.4	6.3	65
dôme	30	2 T.		28.0	20.9	105
			0.5	6.8	3.9	105
shire	20	1 cu. in.	*2.3	34.2	19.3	30
				5.2	9.0	30
hurt, American	30	2 T.		17.5	30.2	60
				4.5	1.6	40
k cream	25	2" x 1½" x 1"		17.9	6.5	60
opodium, see Lambsquartars.			12.5	0.8	0.6	40
	75	½ c.		16.7	1.0	40
				8.9	0.4	40
ies, eating	75	½ c.	*11.9	0.6		
ries, canned, see Fruits,						
ned.						

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cherries, candied	10	3	5.6 *55.8	— 0.6	0 0
Cherries, Maraschino, bottled	10	2	2.8 *28.4	— 0.2	— 0.2
Cherry extract, Burnett, A.P.	5	1 t.	0 0	0 0	0 0
Cherry jam	25	1 T.	22.5 55.0	0.4 0.9	— Trace
Cherry jelly	45	2 T.	34.7 77.2	0.5 1.1	— —
Chervil, leaves	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.3 11.5	0.7 3.4	0.2 0.2
Cheshire cheese	20	1 cu. in.	1.0 *5.2	5.0 25.0	6.2 30.9
Chestnuts, fresh	50	8	18.3 *36.6	1.2 2.3	1.3 2.7
Chestnuts, dried	35	8	26.0 74.2	3.7 10.7	2.5 7.0
Chestnuts, roasted	50	20	17.7 35.4	2.6 5.2	2.3 4.5
Chicken, fresh:					
Broiler	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		49.6 21.5	5.8 2.5
Gizzard	75	1 med.	0.5 0.6	17.3 23.1	2.8 3.8
Heart	30	1 med.		6.2 20.7	1.7 5.5
Liver	75	2 med.	1.8 2.4	16.8 22.4	3.2 4.2
Young, dark meat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.8 20.8	18.9 8.2
Young, light meat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		50.2 21.9	17.0 7.4
Chicken, cooked:					
Boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.1 26.2	11.8 10.3
Breast, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		35.2 30.6	2.3 2.0
†Broiler, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		27.4 23.8	4.2 3.7
Canned, boned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.1 26.2	13.9 12.1
†Light meat, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		36.6 31.8	1.3 1.1
Roasted	60	2 oz.	1.3 2.1	19.3 32.1	2.6 4.4
Roasted, cold	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		27.9 24.3	7.7 6.7
†Thigh and leg, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		31.7 27.6	8.5 7.4
†Thigh and leg, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		31.8 27.7	9.7 8.4
Chicken soups, see Soups.					
Chickpeas	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	49.9 49.9	21.8 21.8	5.0 5.0
Chicory, also see Endive.					
Chicory leaves, green	15	$\frac{1}{2}$ sm. head	0.6 4.0	0.2 1.6	Trace 0.2
Chicory leaves, Italian	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.2 0.8	0.4 1.9	0.1 0.4

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
pot	100		15.0			60
carne, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.0			
			4.0	13.3	4.6	115
carne, Heinz	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.0	13.3	4.6	
			9.2	7.4	6.6	130
er, dried	100		9.2	7.4	6.6	
			8.6	18.0	2.7	135
com.	20	1 T.	*8.6	18.0	2.7	
			5.2	0.5	0.2	25
celery cabbage	110	1 c.	26.0	2.5	0.8	
			2.6	1.5	0.1	20
abbage, cooked	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	2.4	1.4	0.1	
			2.0	1.0	0.1	13
ajube	100		2.0	1.0	0.1	
			24.1	1.2	0.3	110
ajube, dried	100		24.1	1.2	0.3	
			59.9	4.0		260
we Chayote.			59.9	4.0		
beef	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb		15.8	4.1	105
resh	7	1 T.		26.4	6.9	
			0.4	0.3	—	3
le, chocolate-flavored	250	1 c.	*5.8	3.8	0.6	
			29.8	9.0	5.0	205
			11.9	3.6	2.0	
te:						
age, see Cocoa, p. 711.						
's unsweetened	14	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.	3.5	1.7	7.4	90
			25.0	12.0	53.0	
	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	1.1	0.3	3.2	35
			18.0	5.5	52.9	
, plain	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	3.6	0.1	1.8	30
			60.0	2.0	29.8	
, milk	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	3.2	0.4	2.0	35
			54.0	6.0	33.5	
, milk, with almonds	6	$\frac{3}{4}$ " x $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	3.1	0.5	2.3	35
			51.0	8.0	38.6	
te creams	14	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " diam. x $\frac{3}{4}$ "	10.1	0.6	2.0	60
			72.0	4.0	14.0	
ow, com.	25	1 T.	0.5	—	0.8	10
			2.0	Trace	3.0	
ow, Heinz	25	1 T.	0.6	0.4	0.3	6
			2.5	1.6	1.4	
y, apple	20	1 T.	10.1	0.2	—	40
			*50.3	0.8	0.1	
y, tomato	20	1 T.	7.4	0.2	—	30
			*37.2	1.1	0.1	
sweet apple	230	1 c.	32.7	0.2	0	135
			*14.2	0.1	0	
on buns	50	1 med.	28.0	3.9	2.7	155
			56.0	7.8	5.4	
juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.3	1.5	—	40
			6.9	1.3	—	
resh, unripe	100		9.4	0.2	0.3	40
			*9.4	0.2	0.3	
candied	75	$\frac{1}{2}$	58.6	0.4	1.1	250
			78.1	0.5	1.5	
reserved	10	1 sm. piece	4.5	—	—	20
			*45.0	0.2	0.4	

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Clams:					
Long (soft-shell), sm.	40	6	1.1	5.4	0.7
			2.8	13.6	1.7
Long (soft-shell), med.	60	6	1.7	8.1	1.0
			2.8	13.6	1.7
Long (soft-shell), lg.	120	6 (½ c.)	3.4	16.3	2.0
			2.8	13.6	1.7
Long, canned	75	½ c.	2.2	6.8	1.0
			2.9	9.0	1.3
Round (hard-shell), sm., "Little Neck"	70	6 (½ c.)	3.6	7.4	0.8
			5.2	10.6	1.1
Round (hard-shell), med. "Cherrystone"	90	6 (½ c.)	4.7	9.5	0.9
			5.2	10.6	1.1
Round (hard-shell), lg.	180	6 (½ c.)	9.4	19.0	1.9
			5.2	10.6	1.1
Round, canned	80	½ c.	2.4	8.5	0.6
			3.0	10.5	0.8
Clam bouillon, canned	120	½ c.	1.8	1.7	0
			1.5	1.4	0
Clam chowder, canned, con.	140	½ c.	13.6	4.2	5.7
			9.7	3.0	4.1
Clam chowder, canned	250	1 c.	10.0	4.5	2.5
			4.0	1.8	1.0
<i>Clapp's Baby Foods</i> , see pages 704, 707, 709.					
<i>Coca-Cola</i>	180	1 bottle	14.4	—	—
			8.0	—	—
Cocoa beverage, see page 163.					
Cocoa, breakfast, W. Baker	5	2 t.	1.9	0.9	1.3
			38.0	19.0	27.0
Cocoa, powder	5	2 t.	1.9	1.1	1.4
			37.7	21.6	28.9
Cocoa shells	100		—	—	—
			Trace	Trace	Trace
Cocoanut:					
Fresh	10	1" sq.	2.8	0.6	5.1
			27.9	5.7	50.6
Desiccated	100	1½ c.	38.1	4.3	41.0
			*38.1	4.3	41.0
Milk pack, F. Baker	100	½ c.	8.4	1.8	17.4
			8.4	1.8	17.4
Moist, canned	100	1½ c.	30.0	4.4	41.4
			*30.0	4.4	41.4
Premium package, F. Baker	100	1½ c.	43.0	4.3	43.0
			43.0	4.3	43.0
Southern style, F. Baker	100	1½ c.	42.0	3.9	39.5
			42.0	3.9	39.5
Milk	120	½ c.	5.5	0.5	1.8
			*4.6	0.4	1.5
Milk, prepared	100		31.5	6.3	57.4
			31.5	6.3	57.4
<i>Cocomalt</i>	9	1 T.	7.0	1.2	0.3
			78.3	13.1	3.7
Cod:					
Boneless, salt	60	½ lb.		15.8	0.2
				26.3	0.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
	100	1 sm. piece	1.6	21.7	0.3	100
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	1.6	21.7	0.3	
			3.3	23.8	5.4	160
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	*2.9	20.7	4.7	
				31.0	6.0	185
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		27.0	5.3	
				20.7	1.0	95
				18.0	0.9	
ed	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		43.2	2.9	205
				72.0	4.9	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		25.5	0.5	110
				11.1	0.2	
oked	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.		21.1	0.3	90
				42.3	0.5	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb		43.0	1.2	190
				18.7	0.5	
akes, fried	50	1 med.	4.9	6.0	6.9	110
			*9.8	12.1	13.9	
oil	14	1 T.	0	0	14.0	130
			0	0	100.0	
fried	60	2 oz.	1.8	12.4	7.1	125
			*3.0	29.6	11.9	
baked in vinegar	60	2 oz		14.4	1.9	75
				24.0	3.2	
verage	240	1 c.	1.7	0.5	—	9
			0.7	0.2	—	
verage	70	1 demi-tasse	0.5	0.1	—	3
			0.7	0.2	—	
ereal, beverage	240	1 c.	3.4	0.5	—	15
			1.4	0.2	—	
pulverized	12	1 heaping T	0.2	1.5	1.8	25
			1.8	12.3	15.7	
roasted, ground	10	1 heaping T.	0.2	1.2	1.6	20
			1.8	12.3	15.7	
' cream, see 20% cream,						
t.						
(Colewort)	100	1 c.	7.3	4.0	0.6	50
			7.3	4.0	0.6	
, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.0	3.5	0.5	40
			5.0	3.5	0.5	
ereal, rice	20	1 heaping T.	16.1	1.4	Trace	70
			80.7	7.2	0.3	
neat	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb		21.4	0.7	95
				18.6	0.3	
ents, Relishes, etc.:						
reak sauce, com.	5	1 t., sc.	0.8	0.1	Trace	4
			16.0	2.3	1.2	
s	5	1 t.	0.3	0.2	Trace	2
			5.0	3.2	0.5	
p, tomato	20	1 T.	4.8	0.4	0.2	25
			24.0	2.0	1.0	
sauce, com.	20	1 T.	5.2	0.5	0.2	25
			26.0	2.5	0.8	
-chow, com.	25	1 T.	0.5	—	0.8	10
			2.0	Trace	3.0	
ey, apple	20	1 T.	10.1	0.2	—	40
			*50.3	0.8	0.1	
ey, tomato	20	1 T.	7.4	0.2	—	30
			*37.2	1.1	0.1	
	—	1 clove	—	—	—	—
			20.0	4.4	0.2	

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Condiments, Relishes, etc.:					
Horseradish	10	2 t.	1.9	0.3	Trace
			*19.0	3.2	0.2
India relish, Heinz	25	1 T.	7.0	0.1	0.1
			28.0	0.5	0.3
Ketchup, tomato	20	1 T.	5.0	0.5	0.2
			25.0	2.5	0.8
Mustard, dry	5	1 t.	—	0.1	—
			0.3	2.4	0.3
Mustard, prepared	5	1 t.	0.2	0.2	0.2
			5.0	4.7	4.1
Olives, green	25	5	2.9	0.3	6.9
			11.6	1.1	27.6
Olives, ripe	20	5, 1" long	0.8	0.3	5.0
			4.3	1.7	25.0
Pepper sauce (green), Heinz	5	1 t.	0.1	—	—
			2.9	0.7	0.5
Pepper sauce (red), Heinz .	5	1 t.	0.1	—	0.1
			2.4	1.3	2.7
Peppers, red	25	3" piece	2.0	0.3	0.2
			8.1	1.3	0.7
Pickles:					
Cucumber, fresh, com. . .	20	3 sl.	3.2	0.2	—
			15.9	1.2	0.2
Dill	50	1 med.	1.4	0.2	0.1
			2.7	0.5	0.3
Mixed, chopped	10	1 T.	0.4	0.1	—
			4.0	1.1	0.4
Onions, sour, com.	10	2	0.1	—	—
			1.0	0.2	Trace
Onions, sweet, com.	10	2	3.7	—	—
			3.70	0.1	Trace
Sour, chopped, com.	20	1 T.	—	0.1	0.1
			Trace	0.5	0.3
Sweet, chopped, com.	20	1 T.	7.2	0.1	0.1
			36.0	0.5	0.3
Sweet must'd, chopped, com.	25	1 T.	6.3	—	0.2
			25.0	Trace	0.8
Pimentos, canned	11	1 t.	0.8	0.1	Trace
			6.8	0.9	0.3
Salad dressings, see p. 685.					
Soy bean sauce (Hawaiian) .	10	2 t.	0.5	0.8	—
			5.0	7.8	—
Soy sauce (Toyo)	10	2 t.	1.2	0.5	0.2
			*12.0	4.5	1.5
Tabasco Sauce			0	0	0
			0	0	0
Vinegars:					
Cider	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.8	0	0
Malt	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.5	0	0
Spiced, salad	5	1 t.	0.5	0	0
			10.0	0	0
Tarragon	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.2	0	0
Wine	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.4	0	0

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
s, Relishes, etc.:						
Worcestershire sauce	5	1 t.	1.0	Trace	—	4
			19.0	1.1	Trace	
Tomato, canned	240	1 c.	—	7.9	—	30
			Trace	3.3	Trace	
Peas, canned, con.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1	4.7	—	20
			0.1	3.9	—	
Beans, Madrilène, Heinz	240	1 c.	1.4	6.7	—	35
			0.6	2.8	Trace	
Crackers and Biscuits:						
Crackers, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.6	3.0	1.3	100
			16.2	2.6	1.1	
Crackers, bantam, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	19.0	3.0	1.0	100
			16.6	2.6	0.9	
Crackers, very young	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.0	3.0	0.8	80
			15.0	3.0	0.8	
Crackers, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	20.9	3.2	1.4	115
			*18.2	2.8	1.2	
Crackers, med.	100	1 ear, 8"	21.0	3.5	1.1	110
			21.0	3.5	1.1	
Crackers, med., cooked	100	1 ear, 8" ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	19.2	3.1	1.0	100
			*19.2	3.1	1.0	
Crackers, old	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	26.0	4.5	1.8	140
			26.0	4.5	1.8	
Crackers, d	15	1 c.	11.8	1.6	0.8	60
			78.7	10.7	5.0	
Crackers, head	100	1, 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ " sq.	43.6	6.6	7.3	275
			43.6	6.6	7.3	
Crackers, powder, Heinz	250	1 c.	20.5	3.7	6.0	155
			8.2	1.5	2.4	
Crackers, flakes, Kellogg	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	26.2	2.2	0.1	115
			87.4	7.4	0.2	
Crackers, flakes, Quaker	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.9	2.6	0.1	115
			82.9	8.7	0.3	
Beef, average	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		35.9	59.7	735
				15.6	26.2	
Beef, cooked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		16.4	27.3	320
				14.3	23.8	
Beef, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		30.3	21.5	325
				26.3	18.7	
Beef hash, canned	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	26.0	18.4	6.2	240
			11.3	8.0	2.7	
Mutton, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		33.1	26.2	380
				28.8	22.8	
Flour:						
Flour, Pillsbury	15	1 T.	11.7	1.2	0.2	55
			78.3	8.3	1.1	
Flour, Quaker	15	1 T.	11.6	1.3	0.2	55
			77.3	8.9	1.5	
Flour, Pillsbury	15	1 T.	11.8	1.2	0.2	55
			78.7	8.3	1.3	
Flour, Quaker	15	1 T.	11.7	1.3	0.1	55
			77.8	8.5	1.0	
Flour, ed	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.9	1.4	0.8	60
			11.9	1.4	0.8	
Flour,	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0	0	115.0	1070
			0	0	100.0	
Flour,	14	1 T.	0	0	14.0	130
			0	0	100.0	
Flour, ad (fetticus)	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.9	0.5	0.1	7
			3.6	2.0	0.4	

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Cornstarch	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	54.0	—	—
			90.0	—	—
Cornstarch	8	1 T.	7.2	—	—
			90.0	—	—
Cottage cheese	55	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.4	11.5	0.6
			*4.3	20.9	1.0
Cottage cheese, Jewish	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		14.0	4.5
				28.0	9.0
Cottage cheese, potted	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		10.5	17.0
				21.1	34.0
Cottage cheese, skim milk	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		11.6	0.6
				23.3	1.0
Cottolene	11	1 T.	0	0	11.0
			0	0	100.0
Cotton-seed oil	11	1 T.	0	0	11.0
			0	0	100.0
Coulommieres, French cheese	25	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	1.2	4.3	5.1
			4.8	17.4	20.5
Cowpeas, green	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	22.7	9.4	0.6
			22.7	9.4	0.6
Cowpeas, dried	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	60.8	21.4	1.4
			60.8	21.4	1.4
Crab apples	90	6, $1\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	16.0	0.4	0.3
			17.8	0.4	0.3
Crab apple juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.4	—	—
			*11.2	—	—
Crabmeat, blue (Atlantic), canned	60	2 oz.		10.8	0.2
				18.0	0.4
Crabmeat paste	6	1 t.	0.4	1.1	0.3
			*6.8	18.8	5.2
Crabs, Japanese	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		16.9	0.7
				19.9	0.8
Crabs, Norwegian	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		16.9	2.9
				19.8	3.4
Crabs, boiled	60	2 oz.		11.5	3.1
				19.2	5.2
Crabs (Eastern, hard), canned	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.6	13.4	1.3
			0.7	15.8	1.5
Cracker meal	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	72.9	10.9	6.0
			72.9	10.9	6.0
Cracked wheat	115	1 c.	88.0	12.8	2.0
			76.5	11.1	1.7
Crackers and Biscuits:					
Afternoon tea	3	1	2.6	0.2	0.5
			77.7	6.3	14.9
Animal	2	1	1.9	0.1	0.3
			81.0	5.9	12.6
Arrowroot	4	1	3.6	0.2	0.6
			82.0	4.7	12.9
Boston	25	4	17.8	2.8	2.1
			71.1	11.0	8.5
Butter	12	3, 2" diam.	8.6	1.2	1.2
			71.6	9.6	10.0
Cocoanut bars	10	2	7.2	0.6	1.7
			71.6	6.2	16.7
Cookies, crisp, thin, rich	10	1	7.0	0.8	1.8
			69.8	7.8	18.0
Cookies, soft, thick	20	1	14.6	1.4	2.1
			73.0	6.8	10.5

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion.			C
	Grams	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
and Biscuits:						
iced thinly	10	1	6.3	0.6	2.5	50
			63.4	5.7	24.9	
d thickly	20	1	15.0	0.8	2.0	85
			75.0	4.0	10.0	
	25	2, 3" diam.	17.4	2.4	3.3	110
			69.7	9.7	12.1	
	35	4	23.3	4.4	4.9	160
			66.6	12.6	14.0	
	30	2	22.7	1.3	1.4	110
			75.8	4.2	4.8	
tons	30	2	23.0	1.3	0.6	105
			76.8	4.4	2.0	
lock tea	12	3	9.1	1.0	1.4	55
			75.6	7.9	11.5	
snaps	30	8, 1½" diam.	22.8	2.0	2.6	155
			76.0	6.5	8.6	
	25	3, 3" sq.	18.5	2.5	2.4	110
			73.8	10.0	9.4	
, N. B. C.	25	3	19.2	1.9	2.5	110
			76.6	7.6	9.8	
ashioned, Sunshine	7	1	5.4	0.5	0.8	30
			77.2	7.3	11.6	
l, N. B. C.	20	6	15.5	1.5	1.9	85
			77.7	7.7	9.4	
hine	7	1	5.6	0.5	0.8	35
			80.8	7.2	12.3	
y crackers, Sunshine	3	1	2.5	0.3	0.4	15
			73.4	9.9	12.2	
ingers	0	5, 2½" long	21.2	2.6	1.5	110
			70.6	8.8	5.0	
Doone	25	3	16.4	1.7	5.5	125
			65.7	6.9	22.1	
oons	25	2, 1½" diam.	16.3	1.6	3.8	110
			65.2	6.5	15.2	
oth	20	1, 6" diam.	14.0	3.0	—	70
			70.0	15.0	—	
oth, N. B. C.	25	4	21.8	2.6	0.2	100
			86.7	10.5	0.9	
ses cookies	10	1	7.7	0.6	0.9	40
			76.7	6.4	8.9	
co, vanilla	20	6	14.3	1.1	4.2	100
			71.7	5.4	21.2	
cal	35	3	24.0	4.1	3.9	150
			69.0	11.8	11.1	
r	25	¾ c.	17.6	2.8	2.6	110
			70.5	11.3	10.5	
r, Sunshine	18	½ c.	14.2	1.7	2.0	85
			78.7	9.6	10.9	
ettes, N. B. C.	13	12	9.2	1.3	1.4	55
			70.7	9.9	10.6	
t cookies	10	1	5.4	1.4	2.8	55
			53.5	14.0	27.5	
bread	25	1 cracker	18.6	2.8	1.3	100
			74.2	11.1	5.0	
risp, Ralston	6	1	3.7	0.8	0.1	20
			*61.9	13.1	2.0	
a Biscuit, N. B. C.	11	3	7.7	1.0	1.4	50
			70.1	9.3	12.9	
es	20	3 double	13.7	2.1	2.5	90
			68.5	10.6	12.7	
es, Sunshine	3	1	2.5	0.3	0.5	15
			75.8	9.4	14.7	

C

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
Crackers and Biscuits:					
Sandwich-type, com.	15	1	10.8	0.8	2.9
			72.2	5.0	19.9
<i>Saratoga Flakes</i> , N. B. C.	11	3	7.6	1.1	1.3
			69.3	10.0	12.8
Social tea	14	3	11.1	1.2	1.3
			79.4	8.2	9.9
Soda	10	3, 2" sq.	7.3	1.0	1.0
			73.1	9.8	9.1
Soda, Loose-Wiles	7	1	5.4	0.6	0.3
			80.6	9.6	7.5
Soda, N. B. C.	20	3	15.0	1.5	1.9
			74.9	7.3	9.4
Soda, Sunshine	6	1	4.4	0.6	0.7
			75.7	9.6	12.2
<i>Toasted Dainties</i> , whole wheat, N. B. C.	13	4	10.1	1.3	1.0
			77.3	9.6	7.4
<i>Uneeda Biscuit</i>	20	3	14.5	2.2	2.1
			71.8	11.1	10.5
Vanilla wafers	10	3	7.2	0.6	1.5
			72.4	6.1	14.9
Water	18	2	13.6	2.1	0.9
			75.7	11.7	5.0
<i>Wheatsworth</i> , N. B. C.	10	2	7.6	0.9	0.9
			75.5	8.7	9.3
<i>Crackels</i> , Quaker	30	1 c.	24.1	3.3	0.1
			80.2	10.9	0.4
Cranberries	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.2	0.2	0.3
			*8.4	0.4	0.6
Cranberry sauce	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	44.6	0.2	0.3
			44.6	0.2	0.3
Crayfish (Eastern)	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	1.2	18.4	0.6
			1.0	16.0	0.5
Crayfish, boiled	60	2 oz.		11.6	0.5
				19.3	0.8
Cream, see Milks.					
Cream cheese, American	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ pkg.	Trace	3.0	11.4
			*0.2	10.0	38.0
Cream cheese, English	30	2" x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	0.4	1.6	17.4
			*1.3	5.3	56.1
Cream cheese, demi-sel, French	30	2" x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "		4.3	11.9
				14.5	39.9
Cream of barley	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	38.0	5.6	0.8
			76.1	11.1	1.6
Cream of rice	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	23.9	2.2	0.1
			79.6	7.4	0.4
Cream of rye	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	35.9	6.0	0.8
			71.8	12.0	1.6
<i>Cream of Wheat</i>	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.8	3.5	0.7
			72.5	11.8	2.4
<i>Cream of Wheat</i> , cooked	170	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.7	3.4	—
			14.5	2.0	—
<i>Cream of Wheat</i> , "new 5-minute"	20	2 T.	14.6	2.4	0.3
			73.0	12.0	1.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			C
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
an	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8 *4.1	0.8 4.2	0.3 1.4	9
r	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8 4.0	0.2 1.0	0.2 1.0	6
	12	1 T.	—	—	12.0	110
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	—	41.4 18.0	6.9 3.0	205
hite, dried	55	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	41.8 76.0	7.2 13.0	1.1 2.0	210
	75	$2\frac{1}{2}$ " x 2"	1.3 *1.7	0.6 0.8	0.2 0.2	10
, cooked	50	2 T.	0.3 0.7	0.3 0.5	— Trace	2
r pickle, fresh, com.	20	3 sl.	3.2 15.9	0.2 1.2	— 0.2	14
e	100	1 c.	9.9 9.9	3.8 3.8	0.9 0.9	65
black) jam, com.	25	1 T.	17.2 *68.8	0.1 0.5	— Trace	70
black) juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.1 *10.9	0.6 0.5	— —	55
(red) jelly, com.	12	1 t.	7.9 *66.0	Trace 0.3	— Trace	30
(red) juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.1 10.1	0.4 0.3	— —	50
	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.3 *6.6	0.5 0.9	— Trace	15
, stewed without sugar	80	1 c.	2.9 *4.6	0.5 0.6	— Trace	14
	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.2 *4.4	0.6 1.1	Trace	12
stewed without sugar	80	1 c.	2.6 *3.2	0.6 0.8	Trace	13
e	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.8 *5.6	0.7 1.3	Trace	18
, dried	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	31.5 *63.1	0.8 1.7	— —	130
meat	60	2 oz.	5.2 *8.7	4.7 7.9	6.7 11.1	105
powder	0.5	$\frac{1}{5}$ t.	— *26.1	— 9.5	— 10.8	—
v (squash)	125	1 c.	9.1 7.3	1.5 1.2	0.4 0.3	45
d-apple	100	1	18.1 *18.1	2.1 2.1	— Trace	90
d:	50		8.9 *17.9	1.2 2.5	1.3 2.6	55
ana	50		4.7 *9.4	2.6 5.2	2.9 5.9	55
baked	50		6.3 *12.7	2.3 4.7	2.6 5.3	60
boiled	50		10.8 *18.0	2.4 4.0	5.4 9.0	105
zen	60	2 oz.	27.7 *27.7	5.5 5.5	14.4 14.4	270
	100	1 sl.	0.8 *0.8	16.0 14.0	1.7 1.5	85
fish	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.				

D

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Damson plum	50	8 med.	4.8	0.2	
			*9.6	0.5	
Damson plum jam	25	1 T.	13.3	0.3	—
			53.0	1.2	Trace
Dandelion greens	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.3	1.2	0.5
			10.6	2.4	1.0
Dasheens	100	1 tuber	23.5	2.9	0.2
			*23.5	2.9	0.2
Date pudding, Heinz	50		24.1	1.7	4.9
			48.2	3.5	9.9
Dates, fresh	15	3	5.4		
			*35.8		
Dates, dried	13	2 lg.	9.5	0.2	0.2
			*73.5	1.7	1.9
Derbyshire cheese	20	1 cu. in.	0.9	4.9	7.0
			*4.4	24.5	35.2
Dill pickles, com.	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ sm.	0.1	0.2	0.1
			0.5	0.9	0.3
Dock or sorrel	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	Trace	0.5	Trace
			*0.1	2.1	0.2
"Double" cream, see 40% cream, p. 664.					
Doughnuts	45	1, 3" diam.	24.0	3.0	9.5
			53.1	6.7	21.0
Dripping, beef	10	1 T.	0	0	9.9
			0	Trace	99.0
Duck, domesticated	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		49.2	19.0
				21.4	8.2
Duck, wild	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		49.0	12.0
				21.3	5.2
Duck gizzard	100	1 lg.	0.6	21.3	3.7
			0.6	21.3	3.7
†Duck, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		36.3	5.4
				31.6	4.7
Duck, roasted, cold	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		31.2	7.0
				27.1	6.1
Duck egg, see Eggs.					
Dumpling	100		24.0	3.3	11.1
			*24.0	3.3	11.1
Dutch heads (kohlrabi)	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.2	2.0	0.1
			*4.2	2.0	0.1

E

Edam cheese	30	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ " cube	1.9	7.1	10.2
			*6.3	23.5	34.0
Edam cheese, American	30	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ " cube		9.2	6.8
				30.9	22.7
Eels, Mediterranean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	2.3	37.5	40.9
			*1.0	16.3	17.8
Eels, salt water	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		42.8	20.9
				18.6	9.1
Eels, smoked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		21.4	32.0
				18.6	27.8
Eels, stewed	60	2 oz.		6.6	10.9
				11.0	18.1

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				E
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
preserved (Pidan)	100	1 lg.	—	26.8	18.5	285	
			—	26.8	18.5		
	65	1 av.	—	8.6	9.4	125	
			—	13.3	14.5		
	40	1 av.	—	4.4	—	20	
			—	11.1	Trace		
	25	1 av.	—	4.2	9.3	105	
			—	16.8	36.2		
	70	1 av.	—	9.7	9.1	125	
			—	13.8	14.4		
	45	1 av.	—	5.3	—	20	
			—	11.6	Trace		
	25	1 av.	—	4.4	9.1	100	
			—	17.3	36.2		
-hen:			—	4.1	3.6	50	
le	30	1 av.	—	13.5	12.0		
				11.6	—	50	
te, bulk	100			11.6	Trace		
				16.7	31.8	375	
x, bulk	100			16.7	31.8		
	50	1 av.	—	6.7	5.2	75	
			—	13.4	10.5		
Pullet's egg	40	1 av.					
			—	4.3	0.1	20	
hite	35	1 av.	—	12.3	0.2		
			—	2.4	5.0	55	
lk	15	1 av.	—	15.7	33.3		
			—	5.9	5.6	75	
own egg	50	1 av.	—	11.9	11.2		
			—	5.9	5.4	75	
hite egg	50	1 av.	—	11.8	10.8		
			—	12.0	13.1	170	
hydrated (dried) eggs	30	1 oz.	—	40.0	43.7		
			—	2.7	2.9	40	
er, whole	25	1 av.	—	10.7	11.7		
sey:			—	10.7	9.0	130	
hole	80	1 av.	—	13.4	11.2		
			—	5.7	—	25	
hite	50	1 av.	—	11.5	Trace		
			—	5.1	8.9	105	
olk	30	1 av.	—	17.4	32.9		
			—	18.1	11.1	175	
tle, fresh water	100		—	18.1	11.1		
			—	6.6	3.4	60	
tle, sea water	35	1 med.	—	18.8	9.8		
cooked:			0	14.1	19.5	240	
ed	100	2	0	14.1	19.5		
			—	7.6	30.3	315	
elletie	100		—	7.6	30.3		
			0	6.2	5.8	80	
ched	50	1	0	12.4	11.7		
			0.6	10.1	25.2	280	
umbled	100	2	*0.6	10.1	25.2		
			41.0	3.4	1.9	190	
ruit	100		41.0	3.4	1.9		

E

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Eggplant	250	2 sl.	10.8 *4.3	3.0 1.2	0.8 0.1
Eiweissmilch	240	1 c.	3.3 *1.4	7.2 3.0	5.5 2.3
Emmenthaler cheese	30	2 cu. in.	0.4 *1.4	8.5 28.4	8.5 28.5
Endive, chicory, leaves . . .	15	½ sm. head	0.6 4.0	0.2 1.6	Trace 0.2
Endive, white chicory, French	45	1 sm. crown	1.3 2.9	0.7 1.6	0.1 0.3
Escarole (Batavian endive) .	50	½ heart	0.5 *0.9	0.6 1.1	Trace 0.1
Eulachon (Columbia River smelt)	230	½ lb.		30.4 13.2	25.7 11.2

F

Farina	20	2 T.	15.0 75.0	2.2 11.0	0.1 0.5
Fats, see Oils.					
Fave beans	75	½ c.	3.1 4.2	4.0 5.4	— —
Fave beans, dried	75	½ c.	36.1 48.2	17.7 23.6	1.8 2.5
Fennel	50	½ (3" diam.)	1.8 3.6	0.9 1.9	0.1 0.2
Fetticus (cornsalad)	25	½ c.	0.9 3.6	0.5 2.0	0.1 0.4
Figs, fresh, Florida	45	1 lg.	5.3 *11.7	0.3 0.6	0.2 0.5
Figs, candied	15	1	11.0 73.7	0.5 3.5	— 0.2
Figs, canned	85	3	34.8 40.9	1.0 1.2	0.3 0.3
Figs, dried	45	2 lg.	23.8 *52.9	1.6 3.6	— —
Figs, Smyrna, processed . . .	45	3	23.1 *51.3	1.4 3.0	0.2 0.4
Fig jam	25	1 T.	12.8 51.2	0.2 0.7	— Trace
Fig pudding, Heinz	50		24.5 49.0	2.0 4.0	6.0 12.1
Filberts (hazelnuts), raw, unsalted	35	20	3.3 *9.3	5.2 14.9	23.0 65.6
Filberts (hazelnuts), roasted, salted	35	20	4.4 *12.6	4.9 14.1	23.3 66.6
Finnan haddie	230	½ lb.		39.0 17.0	23.0 10.0
Finocchio (fennel)	50	½ (3" diam.)	1.8 3.6	0.8 1.9	0.1 0.2
Fish and Other Sea Food, see specific item.					

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items. English:	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				F
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
.	6	1 t.	0.1	1.2	0.7	12	
.	6	1 t.	*2.5	20.6	12.1	12	
.	6	1 t.	0.2	1.2	0.7	9	
.	6	1 t.	*4.0	20.1	12.0	10	
.	6	1 t.	0.4	1.1	0.3	10	
.	6	1 t.	*6.8	18.8	5.2	10	
.	6	1 t.	0.2	0.9	0.6	10	
.	6	1 t.	*3.0	15.5	9.8	10	
and anchovy . . .	6	1 t.		1.3	0.5	10	
and shrimp . . .	6	1 t.		21.6	8.6	10	
and tomato . . .	6	1 t.	0.5	0.8	0.5	10	
.	6	1 t.	*8.5	14.0	9.1	10	
.	6	1 t.	0.2	1.1	0.5	12	
.	6	1 t.	*4.2	18.2	9.3	11	
.	6	1 t.	0.5	1.1	0.6	11	
.	6	1 t.	*7.9	19.0	9.6	11	
.	6	1 t.	0.1	1.1	0.7	11	
.	6	1 t.	*2.5	18.3	11.5	11	
chocolate flavored made from powder .	250	1 c.	24.2	4.5	0.7	125	
.			9.7	1.8	0.3		
chocolate flavored made from syrup .	250	1 c.	29.5	4.0	1.5	150	
.			11.8	1.6	0.6		
.	100		73.6	14.9	0.5	365	
.	230	½ lb.	73.6	14.9	0.5	145	
.				32.7	1.4	145	
.				14.2	0.6		
.	115	¼ lb.	7.5	19.5	14.8	250	
.			*6.5	17.0	12.9		
(Italian)	100	¾ c.	40.8	3.4	—	180	
.			*40.8	3.4	—		
root	26	2 T.	26.0	—	—	105	
.			100.0	—	—		
na or pisang . . .	100	¾ c.	72.5	3.5	0.8	320	
.			72.5	3.5	0.8		
y meal and flour .	130	1 c.	82.2	13.7	2.9	420	
.			72.8	10.5	2.2		
wheat (sifted) . .	115	1 c.	89.6	7.4	1.4	410	
.			77.9	6.4	1.2		
.	130	1 c.	99.1	10.9	2.3	470	
.			76.2	8.4	1.8		
nseed	100		21.3	49.1	12.7	405	
.			21.3	49.1	12.7		
a, Battle Creek Food							
.	100	¾ c.	43.3	44.8	1.8	390	
.			43.3	44.8	1.8		
n, see also items below.							
Medal, family, enriched	115	1 c. sifted	86.8	12.1	1.2	405	
.			75.5	10.5	1.0		
Medal, phosphated,							
ched	115	1 c. sifted	86.2	12.1	1.2	405	
.			75.0	10.5	1.0		
Medal, self-rising,							
ched	115	1 c. sifted	81.6	11.5	1.2	385	
.			71.0	10.0	1.0		
m, Wheatsworth,							
B. C.	100	¾ c.	74.6	11.4	2.4	375	
.			74.6	11.4	2.4		
ean	100	1½ c. sc.	63.0	21.5	1.4	360	
.			63.0	21.5	1.4		
t	100	1½ c.	36.5	51.2	5.0	405	
.			36.5	51.2	5.0		

F	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Flours:						
Oat	75	1 c.	49.3	11.3	4.4	
			65.7	15.1	6.4	
Pancake, Aunt Jemima, Quaker	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	71.6	10.4	1.5	
			71.6	10.4	1.5	
Pancake, Pillsbury	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	76.0	7.9	1.2	
			*76.0	7.9	1.2	
Pancake, Sperry	140	1 c.	104.7	11.9	1.7	
			74.8	8.5	1.2	
Pillsbury's Best	100	1 c.	75.0	11.2	1.0	
			*75.0	11.2	1.0	
Pisang (banana)	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	72.5	3.5	0.8	
			72.5	3.5	0.8	
Potato	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	83.0	0.5	0.1	
			83.0	0.5	0.1	
Prepared soy gluten casein, Loeb	100	1 c.	26.0	42.0	11.0	
			*26.0	42.0	11.0	
Pure gluten, Loeb	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	43.0	41.0	2.0	
			*43.0	41.0	2.0	
Rice	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	68.0	8.6	6.1	
			68.0	8.6	6.1	
Rye, whole-grain	100	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	75.2	11.2	1.7	
			75.2	11.2	1.7	
Rye, light, Pillsbury	100	1 c.	78.7	9.9	1.4	
			*78.7	9.9	1.4	
Rye, medium, Pillsbury	90	1 c.	69.0	9.5	1.3	
			*76.6	10.4	1.5	
Rye, dark, Pillsbury	100	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	70.6	15.4	2.6	
			*70.6	15.4	2.6	
Self-rising gluten, Loeb	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	40.0	38.0	2.0	
			*40.0	38.0	2.0	
Self-rising, Wheatsworth, N. B. C.	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	67.9	12.3	2.1	
			67.9	12.3	2.1	
Sno Sheen cake	100	1 c.	78.5	7.8	1.1	
			*78.5	7.8	1.1	
Softasilk cake	100	1 c.	73.5	7.5	0.9	
			73.5	7.5	0.9	
Soya	100	1 c.	15.6	46.7	2.7	
			*15.6	46.7	2.7	
Soy bean	100	1 c.	8.0	45.0	11.0	
			8.0	45.0	11.0	
Soy, Battle Creek Food Co.	100	1 c.	33.4	33.6	21.3	
			33.4	33.6	21.3	
Swans Down cake	100	1 c.	78.2	7.6	0.8	
			78.2	7.6	0.8	
Wheat, patent	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	75.9	10.8	0.9	
			75.9	10.8	0.9	
Wheat, patent, enriched	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	75.9	10.8	0.9	
			75.9	10.8	0.9	
Wheat, self-rising	115	1 c.	83.8	11.7	1.0	
			72.9	10.2	0.9	
Wheat, self-rising, enriched	115	1 c.	83.8	11.7	1.0	
			72.9	10.2	0.9	
Whole wheat, Gold Medal	130	1 c.	89.1	18.2	2.6	
			68.5	14.0	2.0	
Whole wheat, Pillsbury	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	70.8	13.4	2.0	
			*70.8	13.4	2.0	
Flying fish, Mediterranean	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	1.3	22.1	1.3	
			1.1	19.2	1.1	

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by 0.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				F
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
Whole wheat flakes	30	1 c.	23.8	3.4	0.3	115	
Specific item.			*79.5	11.4	1.1		
Sausage (Frank-)	120	2, 7" x ¾"	1.3	23.5	22.3	310	
er, all meat	120	2, 7" x ¾"	1.1	19.6	18.6		
				16.9	25.0	300	
er, added cereal	120	2, 7" x ¾"		14.1	20.8		
			18.2	16.9	4.0	180	
lad dressing	11	2 t.	15.2	14.1	3.3		
			—	—	6.6	60	
lad dressing, com.	11	2 t.	—	—	60.0		
			2.0	0.1	3.9	45	
as	230	½ lb.	*18.1	0.6	35.5		
				35.7	0.5	150	
de Brie, American	25	1½" x 1" x ¾"		15.5	0.2		
			0.4	4.0	5.3	65	
de Brie, European	25	1½" x 1" x ¾"	*1.4	15.9	21.0		
				5.2	5.6	125	
Mustard	60	2 oz.		20.9	22.4		
			10.8	2.4	5.4	105	
			*18.0	4.0	9.0		
oods, same analyses as products.							
ke, dark	60	1 sl.	33.5	3.1	8.3	230	
			55.9	5.2	13.8		
ke, dark, N. B. C.	60	1 sl.	37.8	2.9	8.3	245	
			63.0	4.8	13.8		
ke, light, N. B. C.	60	1 sl.	39.0	2.6	7.5	240	
			65.0	4.4	12.5		
lad, see Fruits, canned.							
trups, com.	15	1 T.	7.5	—	0	30	
			*50.0	0.1	0		
Canned:† Refer also to							
ic item.							
ricots, fancy	120	½ c.	66.0	0.6	—	275	
		3 halves	55.0	0.5	—		
ricots, choice	120	½ c.	48.0	0.7	—	200	
		4 halves	40.0	0.6	—		
ricots, standard	120	½ c.	30.0	0.8	—	125	
		3 halves	25.0	0.7	—		
ricots, light syrup	120	½ c.	20.3	1.1	—	90	
			27.3	3.9	—		
ckberries, extra heavy yrupe	120	¾ c.	67.7	1.0	—	280	
			56.4	0.8	—		
ckberries, fancy	120	¾ c.	48.0	1.0	—	200	
			40.0	0.8	—		

General description of grades of canned fruits: **Fancy**—the top grade; fruit of fine quality packed in extra heavy syrup ranging from 40 to 70 per cent. the grade between the top and standard grades; fruit of fine quality packed in syrup containing 10 to 15 per cent less sugar. **Standard**—the medium grade; good quality packed in medium syrup of about 20 to 25 per cent. **Second**—second quality packed in 10 per cent syrup; when packed in water, this fruit is designated **water**; when for bakery use, it may be designated **pie** and **solid packed pie**.

Syrup is used on apricots, peaches, and plums, and, beginning with 10 per cent weight on **Second**, increases in steps of 15 per cent to each grade. **Light syrup** on pears, cherries, and grapes, and, beginning with 10 per cent sugar by weight, increases in steps of 10 per cent to each grade.

Carbohydrate percentages represent added syrup. Available carbohydrate in the fruit is negligible by comparison where the syrup is 20 per cent or more. All percentages are approximate.

F

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Fruits, Canned†:					
Blackberries, choice . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	36.0	1.1	—
			30.0	0.9	—
Blackberries, standard . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.0	1.1	—
			20.0	0.9	—
Blueberries, fancy . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	72.0	0.5	—
			60.0	0.4	—
Blueberries, choice . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	48.0	0.6	—
			40.0	0.5	—
Blueberries, standard . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.0	0.7	—
			20.0	0.6	—
Blueberries, very light syrup	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.4	0.7	—
			12.8	0.6	—
Cherries:					
Fancy ¹	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c., 12	34.0	0.4	—
			40.0	0.5	—
Choice ¹	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c., 15	25.5	0.5	—
			30.0	0.6	—
Standard ¹	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c., 20	17.0	0.5	—
			20.0	0.6	—
Red, pitted, fancy . . .	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	70.0	0.2	—
			70.0	0.2	—
Red, pitted, choice . . .	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	50.0	0.2	—
			50.0	0.2	—
Red, pitted, standard . . .	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	30.0	0.3	—
			30.0	0.3	—
Figs	85	$\frac{1}{2}$ c., 3	34.8	1.0	0.3
			40.9	1.2	0.3
Fruit salad, fancy . . .	140	1 c.	33.6	0.7	—
			24.0	0.5	—
Fruit salad, choice . . .	140	1 c.	28.0	0.7	—
			20.0	0.5	—
Grapefruit	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	17.1	0.7	0.3
			12.7	0.5	0.2
Grapes, Muscat, fancy . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	48.0	0.6	—
			40.0	0.5	—
Grapes, Muscat, choice . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	36.0	0.6	—
			30.0	0.5	—
Grapes, Muscat, standard . . .	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.0	0.7	—
			20.0	0.6	—
Loganberries	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.0	0.5	—
			28.0	0.7	—
Peaches, fancy	140	2 halves	77.0	0.5	—
			55.0	0.3	—
Peaches, choice	140	2 halves	56.0	0.6	—
			40.0	0.4	—
Peaches, standard	140	3 halves	35.0	0.7	—
			25.0	0.5	—
Pears, Bartlett, fancy . . .	120	2 halves	48.0	0.2	—
			40.0	0.2	—
Pears, Bartlett, choice . . .	120	2 halves	36.0	0.3	—
			30.0	0.3	—
Pears, Bartlett, standard . . .	120	3 halves	24.0	0.5	—
			20.0	0.4	—
Pineapple, heavy syrup . . .	150	2 sl.	54.6	0.6	1.1
			36.4	0.4	0.7
Pineapple, medium syrup . . .	150	2 sl.	37.5	0.6	1.1
			25.0	0.4	0.7
Pineapple, light syrup . . .	150	2 sl.	22.5	0.6	0.2
			15.0	0.4	0.1

¹ Black, white and Royal Anne cherries.

† See footnote on page 647.

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			F
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
ed†:						
fancy	100	2, $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	55.0	0.3	—	225
			55.0	0.3	—	
choice	100	2, $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	40.0	0.4	—	165
			40.0	0.4	—	
standard	100	3, $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	25.0	0.5	—	105
			25.0	0.5	—	
	100	3	22.3	0.5	0.1	95
			22.3	0.5	0.1	
berries:						
ck, fancy	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	56.0	1.3	1.3	245
			40.0	0.9	0.9	
ck, choice	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	42.0	1.4	1.4	190
			30.0	1.0	1.0	
ck, standard	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	28.0	1.5	1.5	135
			20.0	1.1	1.1	
l, fancy	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	84.0	0.8	—	350
			60.0	0.6	—	
l, choice	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	56.0	1.0	—	235
			40.0	0.7	—	
l, standard	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	28.0	1.1	—	120
			20.0	0.8	—	
berries	120	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	33.6	0.5	0	140
			28.0	0.4	0	
ried:						
	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	39.7	1.0	1.3	180
			66.1	1.6	2.2	
ts	25	6 halves	10.8	1.2	0.3	50
			*43.4	4.7	1.0	
ts, Zante	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	31.5	0.8	—	130
			*63.1	1.7	—	
	13	2 lg.	9.5	0.2	0.2	40
			*73.5	1.7	1.9	
	45	2 lg.	23.8	1.6	—	105
			*52.9	3.6	—	
	25	10 (large pits)	17.5	0.9	0.1	75
		8 (small pits)	70.0	3.6	0.5	
es	50	3, $1\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	26.5	1.7	—	115
			*53.0	3.4	—	
	75	4 halves	27.0	1.7	0.3	120
			*36.0	2.3	0.4	
	100	8 lg.	40.3	2.4	—	175
			*40.3	2.4	—	
ns, Muscat, seeded	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	48.3	0.8	—	200
			*64.4	1.1	—	
ns, Sultana or Thomp-			38.8	1.0	—	165
seedless	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*64.7	1.7	—	
			32.1	2.9	0.7	150
berries	40	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	80.2	7.3	1.8	
Glacé:						
cots	20	1 med.	17.3	—	—	70
			86.5	0.6	0.2	
ries	10	3	5.6	—	0	25
			*55.8	0.6	0	
	15	1	11.0	0.5	—	45
			73.7	3.5	0.2	
	30	1 oz.	22.8	0.4	0.2	95
			75.9	1.3	0.6	
apple	50	1 sl.	40.0	0.4	0.2	165
			80.0	0.8	0.4	
Juices:						
le	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.0	0.1	—	60
			12.5	0.1	—	

F	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Fruit, Juices:						
Blackberry	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.4 7.0	0.4 0.3	— —
Blueberry	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.9 *12.4	0.1 0.1	— —
Carambola	225	1 c.	23.2 10.3	0.2 0.1	0.2 0.1
Cider, sweet apple	230	1 c.	32.7 *14.2	0.2 0.1	0 0
Citrang	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.3 6.9	1.5 1.3	— —
Crab apple	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.4 *11.2	— —	— —
Currant, black	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.1 *10.9	0.6 0.5	— —
Currant, red	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.0 10.1	0.4 0.3	— —
Granadilla	30	1 oz.	5.7 19.1	0.2 0.6	— —
Grape:						
Catawba type	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.2 20.2	0.5 0.4	— —
Concord	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	20.8 17.3	0.4 0.3	— —
Delaware	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	26.5 22.1	0.4 0.3	— —
Muscadine	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.6 13.0	0.1 0.1	— —
Welch, certified	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.1 15.1	0.4 0.3	— —
Grapefruit, California	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.5 9.8	0.5 0.4	0.1 0.1
Grapefruit, Florida	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.2 12.7	0.6 0.5	0.2 0.2
Lemon	15	1 T.	1.5 9.8	— —	— —
Lime	15	1 T.	1.2 7.8	0.1 0.5	— —
Limequat	15	1 T.	1.0 *6.8	— —	— —
Loganberry	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.1 10.1	0.7 0.6	— —
Muskmelon	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.9 *9.1	— —	— —
Orange, California	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.7 13.1	0.7 0.6	— —
Passion fruit, natural	30	1 oz.	3.5 *11.5	0.4 1.4	— —
Peach	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.4 12.8	0.2 0.2	— —
Pineapple	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.4 12.8	0.4 0.3	0.4 0.3
Pineapple, Hawaiian	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.9 *13.3	0.4 0.3	0.4 0.3
Pomegranate juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.9 *11.6	0.2 0.2	— —
Prune	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	34.6 28.8	1.0 0.8	0 0
Quince	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.9 *9.1	0.4 0.3	— —

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			F
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
es:						
erry, black	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.8 10.7	0.2 0.2	—	55
erry, red	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.0 8.3	0.5 0.4	—	45
erry	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.1 5.1	0.2 0.2	—	25
.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.8 9.0	0.8 0.7	—	50
ine	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.0 9.2	1.1 0.9	0.4 0.3	50
G						
ost cheese, Norwegian	30	1 oz.	2.9 *9.8	12.6 42.1	1.0 3.4	70
.	—	1 clove	—	—	—	—
r fisch	60	$\frac{1}{8}$ lb.	20.0 3.1	4.4 9.6	0.2 5.6	105
.	3	1 t.	5.1 —	16.0 2.7	9.4 —	10
, Knox, Sparkling	7	1 pkg.	— 0	91.4 6.0	0.1 —	25
Baby Foods, see 704, 708, 709.			0	85.5	Trace	
ale	225	1 c.	36.0 16.0	— —	— —	150
ale, Canada Dry	225	1 c.	20.3 9.0	— —	— —	85
crystallized	25	1 sm. piece	21.9 87.5	— —	— —	90
, ground	100		60.0 *60.0	7.4 7.4	0.4 0.4	280
roots	100		9.8 *9.8	1.8 1.8	1.5 1.5	60
snaps	30	8, $1\frac{1}{4}$ " diam.	22.8 76.0	2.0 6.5	2.6 8.6	155
bread	60	1 sq.	30.8 51.4	2.5 4.2	7.1 11.9	205
d, fresh:						
ken	75	1 med.	0.5 0.6	17.3 23.1	2.8 3.8	100
k	100		0.6 0.6	21.3 21.3	3.7 3.7	125
se	100		0 0	21.4 21.4	5.3 5.3	135
key	100		1.3 1.3	20.5 20.5	10.6 10.6	190
ster cheese	20	1 cu. in.	0.9 *4.4	5.6 28.0	5.6 28.0	80
e, com.	16	1 T.	14.4 *90.0	— —	— —	60
flour, see Flours.						
milk	240	1 c.	9.1 *3.8	9.6 4.0	10.1 4.2	170
milk, evaporated, Mey- erg	15	1 T.	1.3 *8.8	1.0 7.0	1.0 7.1	20
milk cheese, French	30	1 oz.	4.6 *15.3	10.0 33.6	7.7 25.9	130
milk cheese, Norwegian	30	1 oz.	14.0 *46.8	2.2 7.6	5.9 19.9	120

G

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Goose, young	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		37.5	83.3
				16.3	39.2
Goose, roast	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		32.2	25.8
				28.0	22.4
Goose egg, see Eggs.					
Goose gizzard	100	1 med.		21.4	5.3
				21.4	5.3
Goose liver	100	2 med.	3.7	16.6	15.9
			3.7	16.6	15.9
Gooseberries, green	100	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	3.4	1.1	—
			*3.4	1.1	—
Gooseberries, ripe	100	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	9.2	0.6	—
			*9.2	0.6	—
Gooseberries, canned, water pack	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	7.2	0.6	0.2
			6.0	0.5	0.2
Gooseberries, canned, in syrup	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	22.2	0.6	0.2
			18.5	0.5	0.2
Gooseberry pie	100	1 sl.	31.0	2.8	9.4
			*31.0	2.8	9.4
Gorgonzola cheese	15	1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ "	0.2	4.2	5.2
			*1.6	28.2	34.7
Gouda cheese, American	30	1 oz.		8.8	7.3
				29.6	24.5
Gouda cheese, Hollander	30	1 oz.		8.1	8.8
				27.0	29.4
Goya cheese	30	1 oz.	0.3	10.3	9.1
			*1.4	34.2	30.4
Graham crackers	25	3, 3" sq.	18.5	2.5	2.4
			73.8	10.0	9.4
Graham flour, Wheatsworth, N. B. C.	100	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	74.6	11.4	2.4
			74.6	11.4	2.4
Graham or whole wheat bread	25	1 sl.	12.0	2.4	0.9
			48.0	9.5	3.5
Grapes, black	100	20	15.5	0.6	—
			*15.5	0.6	—
Grapes, Concord	100	24	14.9	1.4	1.4
			14.9	1.4	1.4
Grapes, Malaga	100	15	16.7	0.8	0.4
			16.7	0.8	0.4
Grapes, white	100	30	16.1	0.6	—
			*16.1	0.6	—
Grapes, canned, see Fruits, canned.					
Grape butter	35	2 T.	20.5	0.4	Trace
			58.5	1.2	0.1
Grape juice:					
Catawba type	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	24.2	0.5	—
			20.2	0.4	—
Concord	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	20.8	0.4	—
			17.3	0.3	—
Delaware	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	26.5	0.4	—
			22.1	0.3	—
Muscadine	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	15.6	0.1	—
			13.0	0.1	—
Welch, certified	120	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	18.1	0.4	—
			15.1	0.3	—
Grapefruit	100	$\frac{1}{2}$, 4" diam.	5.3	0.6	—
			*5.3	0.6	—

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				G
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
Food items.							
, canned, water pack	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.8	0.7	0.3	50	
, canned, juice pack	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.0	0.5	0.2		
, canned, in syrup .	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.2	0.7	0.3	55	
juice, canned, un-			9.0	0.5	0.2		
ed	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.2	0.7	0.3	75	
t juice, canned, sweet-			13.5	0.5	0.2		
.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.2	0.5	0.1	45	
t juice, canned, sweet-			*8.5	0.4	0.1		
.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	16.8	0.5	0.1	70	
t peel, candied . .	10	1 sm. piece	*14.0	0.4	0.1		
ts, Post	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.1	—	—	35	
ts Flakes, Post . .	30	1 c.	80.6	0.4	0.3		
ans, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.9	3.2	0.2	115	
ans, see also beans,			83.2	10.6	0.6		
re plums	50	3 med.	23.2	3.5	0.4	115	
cooked:			77.3	11.7	1.2		
.	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.4	1.2	0.1	20	
oli	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.4	1.2	0.1		
.	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	5.9	0.4	—	25	
ds	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*11.8	0.8	—		
.	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.3	3.0	—	30	
ale (sea-cabbage) . .	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.2	2.2	—		
ch	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.7	3.0	0.1	30	
ip tops	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.7	3.0	0.1		
salad:			3.0	2.4	0.2	25	
ge	75	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.0	2.4	0.2		
ry or endive	15	$\frac{1}{4}$ sm. head	5.0	3.5	0.5	40	
ry, Italian	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.0	3.5	0.5		
salad	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.0	1.8	0.3	25	
elion	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.0	1.8	0.3		
ole	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ heart	0.3	0.4	0.1	4	
en cress	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.3	0.4	0.1		
ce	50	2 lg. leaves	0.8	2.0	0.2	15	
ard	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	2.0	0.2		
ard and cress	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.0	2.0	0.2	20	
ane	100		3.0	2.0	0.2		
			0.2	2.1	0.3	12	
			*0.3	2.8	0.4		
			0.6	0.2	Trace	3	
			4.0	1.6	0.2		
			0.2	0.4	0.1	3	
			0.8	1.9	0.4		
			0.9	0.5	0.1	7	
			3.6	2.0	0.4		
			5.3	1.2	0.5	30	
			10.6	2.4	1.0		
			0.5	0.6	Trace	5	
			*0.9	1.1	0.1		
			0.8	0.8	0.3	9	
			*4.1	4.2	1.4		
			0.5	0.6	0.2	6	
			*1.0	1.2	0.3		
			2.0	1.2	0.2	15	
			4.0	2.3	0.3		
			0.2	0.3	—	2	
			*0.9	1.6	—		
			2.5	1.6	0.4	20	
			*2.5	1.6	0.4		

G

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Greens, salad:					
Romaine	50	5 leaves	1.5	0.5	—
			3.0	1.0	—
Roquette	100		0.3	0.7	0.4
			*0.3	0.7	0.4
Sorrel or dock	25	½ c.	Trace	0.5	Trace
			*0.1	2.1	0.2
Turnip	50	½ c.	3.2	2.1	0.3
			6.3	4.2	0.6
Watercress	20	½ c.	0.1	0.6	—
			*0.7	2.9	—
Grits, Hominy	50	½ c.	39.0	4.4	0.3
			77.9	8.8	0.6
Groats, Robinson's Patent	9	1 T.	6.4	1.1	0.5
			*71.5	12.4	6.0
Grouper, red	230	½ lb.		44.4	1.4
				19.3	0.6
Grouse, roast	115	½ lb.		34.6	6.0
				30.1	5.3
Gruyère cheese	30	2" x 1" x 1"	1.4	9.9	8.4
			*4.8	33.0	28.2
Guava, common	15	1 sm.	2.6	0.2	0.1
			17.1	1.0	0.6
Guava, common, Fla.	15	1 sm.	0.7	0.1	0.1
			*4.8	0.8	0.6
Guava, strawberry	15	2 sm.	2.7	0.2	0.1
			18.2	1.2	0.6
Guinea hen	230	½ lb.		53.1	15.0
				23.1	6.5
Guinea hen, roast	115	½ lb.		37.4	9.4
				32.5	8.2
Guinea hen egg, see Eggs.					
Gumbo (okra)	50	7, 2½" pods	2.0	0.8	0.1
			*4.0	1.6	0.2
Gumbo soup, Creole, canned	250	1 c.	7.5	1.8	0.7
			3.0	0.7	0.3

H

Haddock	230	½ lb.		39.6	0.7
				17.2	0.3
Haddock, fresh, fried	115	½ lb.	4.1	23.5	9.5
			*3.6	20.4	8.3
Haddock, steamed	115	½ lb.		28.3	0.3
				24.6	0.3
Haddock, smoked	115	½ lb.		26.8	0.2
				23.3	0.2
Haddock, smoked, steamed	115	½ lb.		25.6	1.0
				22.3	0.9
Hake	230	½ lb.		35.4	1.6
				15.4	0.7
Hake, fried	115	½ lb.	6.0	22.2	13.1
			*5.3	19.3	11.4
Hake, steamed	115	½ lb.		21.3	3.8
				18.5	3.3
Halibut, cooked	115	½ lb.		23.5	4.6
				20.4	4.0
Halibut, smoked	115	½ lb.		23.9	17.3
				20.8	15.0
Halibut steak	230	½ lb.		42.8	12.0
				18.6	5.2

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			G
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
steamed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		27.7	1.9	130
(P. D. & Co.)	2.4	$\frac{1}{2}$ t.	0	24.1	1.7	20
(P. D. & Co.)	0.7	20 drops	0	0	100.0	6
			0	0	100.0	
lean	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		57.5	33.1	545
medium	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		25.0	14.4	
				35.2	66.5	770
or boiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		15.3	28.9	
				30.4	5.6	175
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		26.4	4.9	
				33.0	5.0	180
	20	1 T.		28.7	4.3	
				3.8	6.8	80
ed, boiled	33	1 sl.	—	19.0	34.1	
			—	7.3	6.8	95
d, lean	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.1	20.6	
				25.5	47.8	630
d, medium	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.8	20.8	
				37.5	89.2	995
				16.3	38.8	
ed; parboiled and						
ed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		32.2	4.4	175
				28.0	3.8	
cheese, Mainz	30	2 cu. in.		11.2	1.7	55
				37.3	5.6	
past	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		35.9	8.0	225
				31.2	7.0	
s (beans), cooked	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	20.7	8.2	—	120
			*16.6	6.6	Trace	
olets, canned	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.9	5.9	0.1	85
			*11.5	4.6	0.1	
s, canned	130	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	2.6	1.4	0.1	15
			*2.0	1.1	0.1	
scarlet	20	10 med.	3.7	0.4	0.1	20
			*18.7	2.0	0.6	
uts (filberts), raw, un-						
d	35	20	3.3	5.2	23.0	250
			*9.3	14.9	65.6	
uts (filberts), roasted,						
d	35	20	4.4	4.9	23.3	255
			*12.6	14.1	66.6	
heese	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		17.2	23.3	285
				15.0	20.3	
fresh:						
lean	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.8	19.4	4.3	125
			0.7	16.9	3.7	
lean with visible fat	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.1	17.7	23.8	295
			0.1	15.4	20.7	
ken	30	1 med.	0.5	6.2	2.1	45
			1.6	20.5	7.0	
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.5	19.4	5.5	135
			0.4	16.9	4.8	
p	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	1.2	19.3	11.0	185
			1.0	16.8	9.6	
ey	30	1 oz.	Trace	4.9	3.8	55
			0.2	16.2	12.7	
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.9	17.7	8.2	155
			0.8	15.4	7.1	
cooked:						
p, roast	60	2 oz.		15.0	8.8	145
				25.0	14.7	

Baby Foods, see pages
708, 709.

H	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
	Herring, lake	100	1 sm.		19.0	3.0
					19.9	3.3
	Sea	100	1 sm.		19.0	11.0
					19.9	11.3
	Salted	100	1 sm.		19.6	11.3
					19.6	11.3
	Baked in vinegar	100	1 sm.		16.9	12.9
					16.9	12.9
	Fried	100	1 sm.	1.5	21.8	15.1
				*1.5	21.8	15.1
	Canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.8	14.3
					20.7	12.4
	Canned in tomato sauce	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	4.2	18.2	12.1
				3.7	15.8	10.5
	Pickled	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		15.0	11.8
					25.0	19.7
	Smoked:					
	Bloaters	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.6	15.4
					19.7	13.6
	Hard	50	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " sq.		18.5	7.9
					36.9	15.8
	Herring, smoked:					
	Kippered	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		26.2	18.8
					22.8	16.3
	Roe, fried	60	2 oz.	2.8	14.0	9.5
				*4.7	23.4	15.8
	Hickory nuts	35	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	4.0	5.4	23.6
				11.4	15.4	67.4
	Holland rusk	15	1	10.5	1.8	0.7
				70.4	12.1	5.1
	Hollandaise sauce	40	2 T.	—	1.0	17.5
				—	2.5	48.8
	Hominy:					
	Raw	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	39.5	4.2	0.3
				79.0	8.3	0.6
	Hecker's cream	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	38.6	4.9	0.2
				77.3	9.8	0.4
	Parched	45	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	32.5	5.2	3.8
				72.3	11.5	8.4
	Pearl, Quaker	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	38.6	4.6	0.5
				77.2	9.1	1.0
	Cooked	200	1 sc. c.	28.0	4.0	—
				14.0	2.0	—
	Hominy Grits, Quaker	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	38.5	5.0	0.3
				77.0	9.9	0.7
	Hominy Grits, Pillsbury	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	39.0	4.4	0.3
				77.9	8.8	0.6
	Honey	25	1 T.	20.3	0.1	—
				81.2	0.4	—
	Alfalfa	25	1 T.	20.4	Trace	—
				81.7	0.1	—
	Buckwheat	25	1 T.	19.5	Trace	—
				78.1	0.1	—
	Orange	25	1 T.	19.7	Trace	—
				78.6	0.1	—
	White clover	25	1 T.	19.4	Trace	—
				77.5	0.1	—
	Honeydew melon	240	$\frac{1}{4}$ c. diced	14.2	1.4	0.2
				5.9	0.6	0.1
	Horlick's Malted Milk	8	1 T.	5.4	1.3	0.7
				*68.0	16.4	8.8
	Horseradish, evaporated, Heinz	3	1 T.	2.0	0.5	—
				66.8	15.6	0.9

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
sh, roots, fresh	10	2 t.	1.9	0.3	Trace	9
ries	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*19.0	3.2	0.2	
			9.7	0.6	0.6	50
			*9.7	0.6	0.6	

I

an:						
erran	50	1 "roll"	10.5	2.0	6.0	110
			*21.0	4.0	12.0	
rade	50	1 "roll"	9.0	1.7	11.5	150
			*18.0	3.5	23.0	
	85	1 gill	18.2	2.3	15.3	225
			*21.5	2.7	18.0	
erical flavors:						
colate	85	1 gill	21.2	4.5	9.4	195
			*24.9	5.3	11.0	
ee	85	1 gill	19.1	3.8	8.1	170
			*22.5	4.5	9.5	
an, com.:						
awberry	85	1 gill	18.3	3.4	7.7	160
			*21.5	4.0	9.0	
illa	85	1 gill	19.1	3.8	10.2	190
			*22.5	4.5	12.0	
m cones, <i>Trumpet</i> , N.						
	5	1	4.2	0.4	0.1	20
			83.9	8.1	1.7	
moss (lichen)	10	1 T.	—	0.9	—	3
			70.0	8.7	—	
uit	60	2 oz.	16.2	0.1	0.1	65
			*27.0	0.1	0.1	
ater, com.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	39.5	0.6	0	165
			33.0	0.5	0	
nuts, see Pine nuts.						
oss (algæ)	10	1 T.	—	0.7	—	3
			*0.4	6.8	—	
ew	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	9.0	4.4	12.6	170
			*7.8	3.8	11.0	
ss, sturgeon	3	1 t.	—	2.7	Trace	10
			—	59.3	1.6	

J

preserves, av.	12	1 t.	7.7	—	—	30
			64.0	—	—	
	25	$\frac{1}{4}$ box	21.5	2.8	0	100
			86.0	11.0	0	
oll	50	1 sl.	27.7	2.4	9.5	210
			*55.4	4.8	19.0	
, Chinese	100		24.1	1.2	0.3	110
			24.1	1.2	0.3	
, Chinese, dried	100		59.9	4.0		250
			59.9	4.0		
, Fla.	25	10 av.	3.1	0.2	0.1	14
			*12.3	1.0	0.4	
he soup, canned, conc.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.1	3.1	—	15
			0.9	2.6	—	

Foods see p. 707.

cream	85	1 gill	18.2	2.3	15.3	225
			*21.5	2.7	18.0	
der, caramel	12	1 T. ($\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.)	11.8	—	—	50
			98.8	0.1	0.1	

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
<i>Junket</i> Powder:					
Lemon	11	1 T. ($\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.)	10.9	—	—
			98.8	0.1	0.1
Chocolate	14	1 T. ($\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.)	12.3	0.3	0.6
			87.7	2.1	4.1
Orange	11	1 T. ($\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.)	10.9	—	—
			98.8	0.1	0.1
Raspberry	11	1 T. ($\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.)	10.8	—	—
			98.0	0.1	0.1
Vanilla	11	1 T. ($\frac{1}{4}$ pkg.)	10.8	—	—
			98.0	0.2	0.1
Tablet	0.5	1	—	—	—
			—	—	—

K

Kaki, Japanese persimmon	100	1 lg.	20.0	0.8	0.4
			20.0	0.8	0.4
Kale, leaves	175	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.6	6.8	1.1
			7.2	3.9	0.6
Kale, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.0	1.8	0.3
			4.0	1.8	0.3
Karo, powdered	8	1 T.	7.6	0	0
			*95.0	0	0
Karo syrup, Blue Label	20	1 T.	14.8	0	0
			*74.0	0	0
Karo syrup, Green Label	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	120.0	0	0
			*75.0	0	0
Karo syrup, Red Label	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	120.0	0	0
			*75.0	0	0
Kephir	100	1 wine glass	1.6	3.1	2.0
			1.6	3.1	2.0
Ketchup, tomato	20	1 T.	5.0	0.5	0.2
			25.0	2.5	0.8
Kidney beans, baked, com.	250	1 c.	52.5	18.8	3.8
			21.0	7.5	1.5
Kidney beans, red, canned	250	1 c.	43.3	17.5	0.5
			*17.3	7.0	0.2
Kidneys, fresh:					
Beef	155	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. diced	1.4	23.3	12.6
			0.9	15.0*	8.1
Pork	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.8	17.8	5.6
			0.7	15.5	4.8
Sheep	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	1.1	19.0	3.5
			1.0	16.5	3.2
Veal	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.2	19.3	6.0
			0.2	16.8	5.2
Kidneys, cooked:					
Ox, stewed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		29.6	6.7
				25.7	5.8
Sheep, fried	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		32.2	10.5
				28.0	9.1
Kingfish	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.5	2.1
				18.9	0.9
Kipperd herring, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0	26.2	18.8
			0	22.8	16.3
Kippers, baked	60	2 oz.		13.9	6.8
				23.2	11.4
Kippers, salted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.6	9.8
				20.5	8.5
Kix, General Mills	35	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	28.8	2.8	0.7
			82.3	8.0	1.9
Kohlrabi (Dutch heads)	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.2	2.0	0.1
			*4.2	2.0	0.1

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion			Cal.
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Food items	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.4	1.1	0.1	20
Items			6.7	2.1	0.1	
Boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	1.0	—	14
			*2.5	1.0	—	
	100		45.4	4.9	1.3	220
			*45.4	4.9	1.3	
	100	1 wine glass	3.6	2.7	7.0	90
			3.6	2.7	7.0	
chocolate-flavored	250	1 c.	27.8	7.5	3.8	180
			11.1	3.0	1.5	
	50	3 med.	7.5	0.3	0.1	35
			15.0	0.7	0.3	

L

acid milk; see milks, ed.						
ers	30	5, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	21.2	2.6	1.5	110
			70.6	8.8	5.0	
esh:	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		21.8	16.8	245
				9.5	7.3	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.9	54.3	685
				19.1	23.6	
quarter	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		42.1	59.3	725
				18.3	25.8	
quarter	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		45.1	43.9	595
				19.6	19.1	
ind, medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		44.2	37.0	525
				19.2	16.5	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.0	65.1	780
				18.7	28.3	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	1.6	34.8	62.1	725
			0.7	15.1	27.0	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		40.7	57.0	695
				17.7	24.8	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		41.6	68.3	805
				18.1	29.7	
der	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		40.5	53.1	660
				17.6	23.1	
cooked:				35.6	8.6	225
op, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		31.0	7.5	
				35.2	6.8	210
spring, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.6	5.9	
				28.4	13.8	245
sted, cold	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		24.7	12.0	
				8.6	7.8	115
s, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	7.5	6.8	4.5	
				14.8	22.2	265
gue, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		12.9	19.3	
				6.2	2.9	40
squartars (Chenopodium)	75	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.3	3.8	0.7	
				7.4	5.3	60
squartars, Algerian	70	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ c.	10.5	7.6	0.9	
			0	0	15.0	140
refined	15	1 T.	0	0	100.0	
			—	0.3	14.1	130
unrefined	15	1 T.	—	2.2	94.0	
				2.4	0.2	15
bulbs and leaves	55	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*4.4	2.5	0.4	
			4.0	2.0	0.2	25
cooked	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	*4.0	2.0	0.2	
			7.4	1.0	0.7	40
	100	1, 2" diam.	*7.4	1.0	0.7	

L	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
	Lemonade, plain	240	1 c.	24.0 10.0	—	—
	Lemon juice	15	1 T.	1.5 9.8 ¹	—	—
	Lemon juice, canned	15	1 T.	1.2 8.0	— 0.4	— 0.3
	Lemon peel, candied	10	1 sm. piece	8.1 80.6	— 0.4	— 0.3
	Lemon extract, Burnett, A.P.	5	1 t.	0 0	0 0	0 0
	Lentils, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	28.0 28.0	12.0 12.0	4.5 4.5
	Lentils, dried	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	32.8 54.7	15.4 25.7	0.6 1.0
	Lettuce	50	2 lg. leaves	0.5 *1.0	0.6 1.2	0.2 0.3
	Lettuce, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.5 0.5	0.5 0.5	0.1 0.1
	Leyden cheese	20	1 cu. in.	0.2 *1.0	7.2 35.9	2.2 11.0
	<i>Libby</i> , homogenized foods, see page 706.					
	Lichi nuts, see Litchi.					
	Lichens, see Iceland moss.					
	Liederkrantz cheese	30	1 oz.		5.0 16.8	7.3 24.5
	Lima beans, green	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	16.5 *22.0	5.6 7.5	0.6 0.8
	Lima beans, yellow, cooked	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	27.5 22.0	11.2 9.0	1.0 0.8
	Lima beans, canned	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	19.0 14.6	5.2 4.0	0.4 0.3
	Lima beans, dried	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	49.4 65.9	13.6 18.1	0.5 1.5
	Lima bean flour	100	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. sc.	63.0 63.0	21.5 21.5	1.4 1.4
	Limburg cheese, American	40	1 triangle		11.4 28.5	12.0 29.8
	Limburg cheese, European	40	1 triangle		8.5 21.3	7.8 19.6
	Limes	40	1, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	4.9 12.3	0.3 0.8	Trace 0.1
	Limes, Florida	40	1 med.	0.2 0.5	0.3 0.8	Trace 0.1
	Lime juice	15	1 T.	1.2 7.8	0.1 0.5	— —
	Limequat juice, Florida	15	1 T.	1.0 *6.8		
	Limu, see Algae, Hawaiian.					
	Ling cod	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		37.0 16.1	— Trace
	Ling, fried	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	7.2 *6.3	19.3 16.8	14.3 12.4
	Ling, steamed	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		25.8 22.4	0.9 0.8
	Litchi	25	10 (large pits) 8 (small pits)	17.5 70.0	0.9 3.6	0.1 0.5
	Livarot cheese	25	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{4}$ "	2.0 *8.0	7.9 31.8	5.5 22.0

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

¹ Sugar content 2.3 per cent, remainder citric acid.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	5.8	46.9	12.4	310
			2.5	20.4	5.4	
	75	2 med.	1.8	16.8	3.2	105
			2.4	22.4	4.2	
	100	2 med.	3.7	16.6	15.9	230
			3.7	16.6	15.9	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	11.6	53.2	20.8	460
			5.0	23.1	9.0	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	3.2	49.2	10.4	310
			1.4	21.4	4.5	
	100		0.7	22.0	4.8	140
			0.7	22.0	4.8	
ed:						
fried	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	2.8	33.3	16.7	305
			2.4	29.0	14.5	
d	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	4.6	33.9	18.3	330
			4.0	29.5	19.5	
e (paté de foie gras)	6	1 t.	0.3	0.7	2.6	30
			4.8	11.4	43.8	
sage or pudding . . .	60	2 oz.	0.9	10.0	12.4	195
			1.5	16.7	20.6	
ooked	100	1 av.	0.4	17.2	1.9	90
			0.4	17.2	1.9	
laked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.4	16.4	1.8	85
			0.4	16.4	1.8	
canned	90	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.4	16.3	1.0	80
			0.5	18.1	1.1	
aste	6	1 t.	0.2	0.9	0.6	10
			*3.0	15.5	9.8	
ries	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	0.8	—	15
			*3.4	1.1	—	
ries, canned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	33.6	0.8	0	140
			28.0	0.7	0	
rry juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.1	0.7	—	65
			10.1	0.6	—	
n syrup	18	1 T.	11.9	0	0	50
			*66.0	0	0	
	25	1 med.	2.5	0.1	Trace	10
			*10.1	0.4	0.2	
Japanese	15	1 lg.	1.6	0.1	—	7
			*10.9	0.4	0.1	
resh:						
	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		17.8	3.5	105
				15.5	3.0	
	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.7	5.8	135
				17.1	5.0	
	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		23.2	3.2	125
				20.2	2.8	

see Litchi

M

amia nuts, Hawaiian,						
in oil and salted . . .	30	14	2.4	2.6	23.5	240
			8.2	8.6	78.5	
oni	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	55.6	10.1	0.7	275
			74.1	13.4	0.9	
oni, Quaker	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	55.1	10.5	0.7	275
			73.5	14.0	0.5	

M

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
Macaroni, boiled	240	1 c.	37.9	7.2	3.6
			15.8	3.9	1.5
Macaroni and cheese	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	17.2	8.7	14.7
			*15.0	7.6	12.8
Macaroni in cream sauce, Heinz	240	1 c.	33.4	10.8	3.1
			13.9	4.5	1.5
Macaroons	25	2, $1\frac{1}{4}$ " diam.	16.3	1.6	3.8
			65.2	6.5	15.2
Macedoine (mixed vegetables), canned	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.1	1.1	—
			*3.9	1.4	—
Mackerel:					
Raw	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.0	16.3
				18.7	7.1
Cooked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	4.2	19.2	7.3
			3.7	16.7	6.4
Fried	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.0	13.0
				20.0	11.3
Canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		22.6	7.9
				22.6	7.9
Salt	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		24.3	26.0
				21.1	22.8
Smoked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		27.4	15.0
				23.8	13.0
Malt Breakfast Food	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	22.7	3.2	0.3
			75.8	10.7	1.0
Malted milk, Borden	8	1 T.	5.6	1.2	0.8
			70.1	15.1	9.2
Malted milk, Horlick	8	1 T.	5.4	1.3	0.7
			*68.0	16.4	8.8
Malted milk, Thompson, choc- olate	10	1 T.	8.2	0.8	0.6
			82.3	7.8	5.8
Maltes Cereal	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	23.0	5.0	0.5
			76.7	16.7	1.7
Mandarinen (tangerines)	100	2, 2" diam.	10.9	0.8	0.3
			10.9	0.8	0.3
Mango, Florida	160	1 av.	19.2	0.3	0.3
			*12.0	0.5	0.5
Manioca starch (tapioca)	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	35.2	0.2	Trace
			88.0	0.4	0.1
Maple extract, imitation, Bur- nett, A.P.	6	1 t.	1.8	0	0
			30.0	0	0
Maple sugar	60	1, $1\frac{1}{2}$ " sq.	49.7	—	—
			*82.8	—	—
Maple syrup	18	1 T.	12.8	—	—
			*71.4	—	—
Margarine	15	1 T.	—	0.1	12.2
			0.4	0.6	81.0
Marmalade, orange	25	1 T.	21.1	0.2	Trace
			84.5	0.6	0.1
Marmite, see Vegex.					
Marrow, beef	20	1 T.		0.4	18.6
				2.2	92.8
Marrow, vegetable	100	1 c.	1.4	0.5	0.1
			*1.4	0.5	0.1
Marshmallows	30	5, $1\frac{1}{4}$ " diam.	24.0	2.0	—
			80.0	6.7	—
Marzipan (almond paste)	10	1 t.	1.1	1.3	3.5
			10.9	13.2	34.5

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† The term "skimmed" is not acceptable.

‡ Gross fat re-

Negligible quantity is designated

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				M
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
	20	1, 6" diam.	14.0	3.0	—	70	
			70.0	15.0	—		
corn.	20	1 T.	0.4	0.3	16.0	150	
			2.0	1.4	80.0		
	30	¼ c.	20.4	4.7	1.3	115	
			67.9	15.6	4.4		
	15	1 T.	0	0	14.7	135	
			0	0	98.1		
	130	1 c.	82.2	13.7	2.9	420	
			66.3	10.5	2.2		
anular	130	1 c.	98.0	12.0	2.5	475	
			75.4	9.2	1.9		
	100	¼ c.	28.0	35.9	17.5	390	
			28.0	35.9	17.5		
	130	1 c.	93.0	17.7	2.6	465	
			71.5	13.6	2.0		
	100	1½ c.	—	36.5	17.5	310	
			—	36.5	17.5		

Millions, see Multi-Food.

Babies, see pages 703-709

ste (chicken, ham,	20	1 T.	0.8	3.9	2.5	45
			*4.2	19.7	12.7	
General Classification						
ery well done	115	¼ lb.		39.1	6.9	225
				34.0	6.0	
ium done	115	¼ lb.		34.5	6.9	205
				30.0	6.0	
	115	¼ lb.		31.0	6.9	190
				27.0	6.0	
m fat, well done	115	¼ lb.		34.5	20.7	335
				30.0	18.0	
ium done	115	¼ lb.		31.0	20.7	320
				27.0	18.0	
	115	¼ lb.		26.4	20.7	300
				23.0	18.0	
edium done	115	¼ lb.		25.3	34.5	425
				22.0	30.0	
at, medium done	115	¼ lb.		19.5	51.7	560
				17.0	45.0	
past, white bread	20	2 sl., 4" sq.	15.8	2.8	0.4	80
			79.0	14.0	1.8	

awpaw, see Papaya.

see specific item.

nd Cream, cow:	240	1 c.	12.0	7.9	9.6	170
			*5.0	3.3	4.0	
	30	1 oz.	1.5	1.0	1.2	20
			*5.0	3.3	4.0	
(6 oz.)	170	6 oz.	7.6	5.3	11.9	165
			*4.5	3.1	7.0	
	28	1 oz.	1.3	0.8	2.0	35
			*4.5	3.1	7.0	
½ hand	240	1 c.	11.3	8.6	1.7	95
			*4.7	3.6	0.7	
½ hand	30	1 oz.	1.4	1.1	0.2	12
			*4.7	3.6	0.7	
separator	240	1 c.	12.0	8.9	0.5	12
			*5.0	3.7	0.2	
½ separator	30	1 oz.	1.5	1.1	0.1	90
			*5.0	3.7	0.2	

M

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Milks and Cream, cow:					
Whey	225	1 c.	11.4	2.3	0.7
			*5.0	1.0	0.2
Cream, light (20% fat) . .	230	1 c.	9.2	6.9	46.0
			*4.0	3.0	26.6
Cream, light (20% fat) . .	27	1 oz.	1.1	0.8	5.0
			*4.0	3.0	26.6
Cream, light (20% fat), sour	15	1 T.	0.4	0.5	3.0
			*3.0	3.1	26.6
Cream, medium (30% fat) .	225	1 c.	7.9	5.9	67.0
			*3.5	2.6	30.6
Cream, medium (30% fat) .	25	1 oz.	0.9	0.6	7.5
			*3.5	2.6	30.6
Cream, whipping (32% fat)	225	1 c.	7.4	5.6	72.0
			*3.3	2.5	32.0
Cream, heavy (40% fat) . .	25	1 oz.	0.9	0.5	10.0
			*3.0	2.2	40.0
Cream, heavy (40% fat), sour	14	1 T.	0.4	0.3	5.6
			*2.7	2.3	40.0
Cream (32% fat), whipped .	10	1 T.	0.3	0.3	3.2
			*3.3	2.5	32.0
Condensed	25	1 T.	13.5	2.2	2.1
			*54.1	8.8	8.3
Condensed, Eagle Brand, Borden	25	1 T.	13.4	2.0	2.2
			*53.5	8.1	9.0
Condensed, Lion	25	1 T.	14.0	1.9	2.0
			*56.0	7.6	8.1
Evaporated	15	1 T.	1.5	1.0	1.2
			*10.1	6.7	8.2
Evaporated, Borden	15	1 T.	1.4	1.0	1.2
			*9.7	6.9	7.9
Evaporated, Carnation . . .	15	1 T.	1.5	1.0	1.2
			*9.9	6.8	7.9
Evaporated, Lion	15	1 T.	1.5	1.0	1.2
			*9.9	6.8	7.9
Evaporated, Pet	15	1 T.	1.5	1.1	1.2
			*9.0	7.1	7.9
Evaporated, Van Camp . . .	15	1 T.	1.5	1.0	1.2
			*10.2	7.7	7.8
Reconstituted	240	1 c.	12.7	7.5	8.6
			*5.3	3.1	3.6
Milks, cultured:					
Acidophilus, Lederle	240	1 c.	7.2	8.4	8.4
			*3.0	3.5	3.5
Acidophilus, Walker-Gordon	240	1 c.	9.1	8.2	4.8
			*3.8	3.4	2.0
Buttermilk, skim, com. . . .	240	1 c.	10.8	7.9	1.0
			*4.5	3.3	0.4
Buttermilk, whole, com. . .	240	1 c.	10.8	7.9	9.1
			*4.5	3.3	3.8
Buttermilk, sour cream . . .	240	1 c.	9.4	8.0	1.2
			*3.9	3.3	0.5
Buttermilk, sweet cream . .	240	1 c.	10.6	8.4	1.0
			*4.4	3.5	0.4
Kephir	100	1 wine glass	1.6	3.1	2.0
			1.6	3.1	2.0
Koumiss	100	1 wine glass	3.6	2.7	7.0
			*3.6	2.7	7.0
Yoghurt	100	1 wine glass	9.4	7.4	7.2
			*9.4	7.4	7.2

* Largely assimilable.

† Gross fat removed.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by †.

¹ The term "skimmed" is not acceptable.

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			M
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
red:						
ed	15	2 T.	5.5	4.3	4.0	75
ed	15	2 T.	*36.5	28.7	26.9	
ed	8	1 T.	5.8	5.3	0.3	50
ed	8	1 T.	*38.8	35.4	1.7	
ed	7	2 T.	6.0	1.0	—	30
ed	7	2 T.	*74.5	13.0	0.5	
ed	8	1 T.	3.2	2.2	0.8	30
ed	8	1 T.	*46.0	32.0	12.0	
ed	8	1 T.	3.0	2.1	2.2	40
ed	8	1 T.	*38.0	26.7	28.0	
ed	8	1 T.	5.6	1.2	0.8	35
ed	8	1 T.	70.1	15.1	9.2	
ed	8	1 T.	5.4	1.3	0.7	35
ed	8	1 T.	*68.0	16.4	8.8	
ed	10	1 T.	8.2	0.8	0.6	40
ed	8	1 T.	82.3	7.8	5.8	
ed	8	1 T.	1.8	3.0	2.2	40
ed	8	1 T.	*23.0	37.0	27.0	
ed	8	1 T.	4.0	3.0	0.1	30
ed	8	1 T.	*49.9	37.7	1.4	
ed	8	1 T.	3.8	2.9	0.1	30
ed	8	1 T.	*47.8	36.0	1.0	
ed	8	1 T.	2.6	2.1	2.2	40
ed	8	1 T.	*32.5	26.5	28.0	
ious species:						
ed	245	1 c.	14.9	4.9	3.7	115
ed	245	1 c.	*6.1	2.0	1.5	
ed	245	1 c.	11.7	11.7	18.1	265
ed	235	1 c.	*4.8	4.8	7.4	
ed	235	1 c.	13.1	9.1	6.6	150
ed	240	1 c.	*5.6	3.9	2.8	
ed	240	1 c.	10.3	13.0	24.0	240
ed	245	1 c.	*4.3	5.4	10.0	
ed	245	1 c.	13.9	14.2	15.9	255
ed	240	1 c.	*4.8	5.8	6.5	
ed	240	1 c.	9.1	9.6	10.1	170
ed	240	1 c.	*3.8	4.0	4.2	
ed	15	1 T.	1.3	1.0	1.0	20
ed	30	1 oz.	*8.8	7.0	7.1	
ed	30	1 oz.	1.9	0.4	0.9	20
ed	245	1 c.	*6.5	1.5	3.3	
ed	245	1 c.	13.7	9.5	7.8	170
ed	245	1 c.	*5.6	3.9	3.2	
ed	245	1 c.	14.2	4.9	2.9	105
ed	245	1 c.	*5.8	2.0	1.2	
ed	250	1 c.	5.2	25.0	42.7	300
ed	100		*2.1	10.0	17.1	
ed	100		70.5	8.2	4.2	360
ed	100		*70.5	8.2	4.2	
ed	115	1 lb.	36.9	5.5	7.7	245
ed	115	1 lb.	32.1	4.8	6.7	
ed	115	1 lb.	69.2	7.7	1.6	330
ed	115	1 lb.	60.2	6.7	1.4	
ed	115	1 lb.	51.9	3.2	3.3	255
ed	100	1 sl.	45.1	2.8	2.9	
ed	100	1 sl.	42.6	4.7	19.7	375
ed	14	1 T.	*42.6	4.7	19.7	
ed	14	1 T.	0	0	0	0
ed	14	1 T.	0	0	0	0
ed	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0
ed	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0

M

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Cal.
Minute Tapioca	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	35.2 88.0	0.2 0.4	1.2 0
Miracle Whip, Kraft	20	1 T.	1.7 8.5	0.2 1.2	10.2 50.9
Mock turtle soup, canned, conc.	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.8 6.0	7.5 5.8	1.0 0.8
Mock turtle soup, canned	240	1 c.	12.9 5.4	3.8 1.6	1.2 0.5
Molasses, Br'er Rabbit, Gold Label	190	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	140.0 73.7	0.9 0.5	0 0
Molasses, Br'er Rabbit, Green Label	190	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	133.2 70.1	1.7 0.9	0 0
Molasses, Cane:					
Light	25	1 T.	16.5 *65.0	—	—
Medium	25	1 T.	15.0 *60.0	—	—
Dark	25	1 T.	13.8 *55.0	—	—
Molasses cookies	10	1	7.7 76.7	0.6 6.4	0.9 8.9
Mountain spinach (Orach)	75	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.5 4.7	3.3 4.5	0.3 0.4
Mozzarella, Italian cheese	30	1 oz.	0.5 *1.8	8.4 28.1	7.3 24.3
Muffets, Quaker	23	1	17.5 75.6	2.6 11.1	0.3 1.4
Mulberries, black	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	6.1 *8.1	1.0 1.3	—
Mulberries, black, white, and red	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	11.0 14.6	0.9 1.2	0.5 0.6
Mullet, grey	50	2 av.	0.4 0.8	7.9 15.8	3.4 6.8
Mullet, grey, steamed	50	2 av.	—	10.8 21.6	2.0 4.0
Mullet, red	100	2 av.	1.3 1.3	15.7 15.7	4.7 4.7
Mullet, red, steamed	100	2 av.	—	21.4 21.4	4.3 4.3
Mulligatawny soup, canned, conc.	150	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	16.1 10.7	4.1 2.7	0.8 0.5
Multi-purpose Food	30	1 oz.	10.5 35.0	12.7 42.3	1.4 4.5
Mung beans, solid green seed	100	—	59.9 59.9	23.3 23.3	1.0 1.0
Mung beans, sprouts	125	1 c.	5.0 4.0	3.6 2.9	0.4 0.3
Münster cheese	30	$1\frac{1}{8}$ " cube	2.1 *6.9	5.1 16.9	7.7 25.9
Münster cheese, American	30	$1\frac{1}{8}$ " cube	—	6.7 22.2	9.3 31.0
Mushrooms:					
Fresh	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. diced	— 6.8	— 3.5	0.2 0.4
Boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	—	—	0.2 0.2
Fried	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	— *0.0	— 2.2	13.4 22.3
Canned, whole	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	— 6.2	— 1.9	0.2 0.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion.				M
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb	Prot	Fat	Cal.	
any buttons	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	—	—	0.2	2	
liced	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.2	4.5	0.2	2	
liced stems and	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.7	4.4	0.2	2	
.	100		3.0	3.1	0.2	14	
broth, canned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	64.0	15.5	1.5	2	
soup, cream of,	240	1 c.	9.6	5.8	10.6	160	
ge	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	4.0	2.4	4.4	245	
n, California	200	$\frac{1}{2}$, 5" diam.	14.4	1.2	0.2	65	
a juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*7.2	0.6	0.1	45	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	10.9	20.2	2.5	145	
oiled	60	2 oz.	*9.1	8.7	1.1	55	
canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.1	10.1	1.2	110	
dry	5	1 t.	Trace	16.8	2.0	—	
prepared, com.	10	1 heaping t.	1.5	18.2	3.3	10	
greens	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*1.5	18.2	3.3	15	
and cress	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.3	0.1	—	2	
fresh:			0.3	2.4	0.3	—	
, all analyses	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.3	0.4	0.7	925	
, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	2.8	4.3	6.5	515	
medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	2.0	1.2	0.2	965	
quarter	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	4.0	2.3	0.3	810	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	19.4	14.5	12.6	210	
quarter	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	16.9	12.6	12.6	780	
y	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	16.7	28.1	3.5	110	
ind, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	16.5	3.2	—	450	
ind, medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	45.5	28.5	12.4	560	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	42.6	41.4	18.0	460	
Free fat removed	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	11.6	53.2	20.8	630	
medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	5.0	23.1	9.0	860	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	36.8	76.1	33.1	125	
medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	23.2	3.2	2.8	595	
er, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	38.9	46.6	24.6	460	
			16.9	29.7	12.9		

M

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Mutton, fresh:					
Shoulder, medium fat . . .	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		40.7	45.2
				17.7	19.3
Side	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		37.3	68.3
				16.2	29.5
Mutton, cooked:					
‡Boiled, lean	75	1 sl.		23.2	3.4
				30.8	4.4
Brains, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		13.5	7.7
				11.7	6.7
‡Chop, lean, broiled . . .	100	1 chop		22.6	4.5
				22.6	4.5
Chop, fried, lean	100	1 chop	5.7	22.8	25.2
			*5.7	22.8	25.2
Chop, fried, med. fat . . .	100	1 chop	2.6	15.4	60.1
			*2.6	15.4	60.1
Chop, grilled, lean	100	1 chop		26.5	17.5
				26.5	17.5
Chop, grilled, med. fat . . .	100	1 chop		19.9	45.0
				19.9	45.0
Corned, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		33.1	26.2
				28.8	22.8
Heart, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		28.7	16.9
				25.0	14.7
Kidney, fried	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		32.2	10.5
				28.0	9.1
Leg, boiled	75	1 sl.		19.3	12.4
				25.8	16.6
‡Leg, roasted	75	1 sl.		18.7	16.9
				25.0	22.5
‡Roasted, cold	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		33.4	30.8
				29.0	26.8
Scrag and neck, stewed . . .	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		27.8	28.0
				24.2	24.4
Tongue, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		28.1	27.6
				24.4	24.0
Mutton soup, canned, conc. .	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.9	6.4	0.8
			4.9	4.6	0.6
Mysost cheese, American . .	30	1 oz.		2.9	0.8
				9.9	2.8
Mysost cheese (Primost) . . .	30	1 oz.		4.2	10.3
				14.0	34.5

N

Navy beans. See Beans, baked.

Nectarines	125	1, 2" diam.	15.5	1.1	—
			*12.4	0.9	—
Nettle, leafy shoots	100		7.1	5.5	0.7
			*7.1	5.5	0.7
Neufchâtel cheese	30	2 T.	0.5	5.6	8.2
			*1.5	18.7	27.4
Neufchâtel cheese, American .	30	2 T.	0.8	6.4	5.4
			*2.9	21.3	18.2
Noekkelost cheese, Scandina- vian	30	1 oz.	2.1	9.2	4.9
			*7.0	30.6	16.3
Noodles, raw	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	45.4	7.0	0.6
			75.6	11.7	1.0
Noodles, egg, Quaker	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	43.3	7.1	2.2
			72.2	11.9	3.6

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			N
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
			—	0.2	12.7	
Almonds, sweet, fresh	15	1 T.	—	1.4	84.8	120
Almonds, sweet, dried	30	20	1.3	6.1	16.0	175
Almonds, sweet, roasted	20	½ c.	*4.3	20.5	53.5	135
Almonds, sweet, desiccated	30	4	2.6	4.4	11.5	195
Almonds, bitter, fresh	20	12	13.2	21.9	57.4	140
Almonds, bitter, dried	30	4	1.2	4.1	18.4	195
Almonds, bitter, roasted	20	12	*4.1	13.8	61.5	140
Almonds, bitter, desiccated	20	12	0.7	5.6	12.2	140
Almonds, bitter, desiccated	20	12	3.5	27.9	61.2	140
Walnut kernels, fried in oil	15	8	2.0	4.3	7.9	100
Walnuts, fresh	50	8	13.4	28.7	52.4	90
Walnuts, dried	35	8	18.3	1.2	1.3	90
Walnuts, roasted	50	20	*36.6	2.3	2.7	185
Walnuts, fresh	50	20	26.0	3.7	2.5	240
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	74.2	10.7	7.0	240
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	17.7	2.6	2.3	240
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	35.4	5.2	4.5	300
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	14.0	2.9	25.0	300
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	27.9	5.7	50.6	485
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	27.0	4.0	37.3	485
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	*30.0	4.4	41.4	250
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	17.1	1.9	18.5	250
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	*38.1	4.3	41.0	250
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	3.3	5.2	23.0	250
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	*9.3	14.9	65.6	250
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	4.4	4.9	23.3	255
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	*12.6	14.1	66.6	260
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	4.0	5.4	23.6	260
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	11.4	15.4	67.4	220
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	45.4	4.9	1.3	220
Walnuts, desiccated	45	¾ c.	*45.4	4.9	1.3	220
See Fruits, dried.						
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	2.4	2.6	23.5	240
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	8.2	8.6	78.5	360
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	5.1	16.9	29.4	360
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*8.6	28.1	49.0	95
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	2.6	4.4	7.0	95
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	17.1	29.3	46.5	90
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	1.7	3.8	7.5	90
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	11.0	25.0	50.0	185
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	1.0	2.4	18.2	185
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*3.9	9.4	73.0	60
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	0.7	3.4	4.9	60
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*6.9	33.9	49.4	60
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	0.7	3.4	4.9	60
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*6.9	33.9	49.4	70
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	2.6	0.6	6.1	70
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*26.2	6.5	60.7	65
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	0.8	2.8	5.4	65
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*8.4	28.1	53.7	70
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	1.7	1.5	6.2	70
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*17.3	14.6	61.9	130
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	3.3	4.5	10.8	130
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	16.3	22.3	54.0	130
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	1.8	4.4	18.0	195
Almonds, Hawaiian, fried and salted	30	14	*5.0	12.5	51.5	195

Food items.	Grams.	Size of portion.		Nutritive value of portion.		
		Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
O						
Nuts:						
Walnuts, black	35	6 (whole)	4.1	9.7	19.7	
			11.7	27.6	58.3	
Walnuts, soft-shelled	35	6 (whole)	4.7	5.8	22.2	
			13.5	16.6	55.4	
0						
Oatmeal	20	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	13.5	3.2	1.4	
			67.5	16.1	7.2	
Oats:						
Crushed, Grandmother's	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	19.6	4.5	2.0	
			65.4	14.9	6.5	
Mother's, Quaker, Quick Quaker and Quick Mother's	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	19.2	5.3	1.8	
			64.0	17.8	6.1	
Rolled	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	19.9	5.0	2.2	
			66.3	16.7	7.3	
Rolled, cooked,	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. sc.	15.5	4.0	1.0	
			15.5	4.0	1.0	
Rolled, Purity	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	18.5	5.0	2.0	
			61.6	16.3	6.1	
Oca, tubers	100		14.7	1.4	0.2	
			*14.7	1.4	0.2	
Oils and Fats:						
Butter	10	1" x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	—	0.1	8.5	
			—	1.0	85.0	
Cod-liver	14	1 T.	0	0	14.0	
			0	0	100.0	
Corn	14	1 T.	0	0	14.0	
					100.0	
Cottolene	11	1 T.	0	0	11.0	
					100.0	
Cotton-seed	11	1 T.	0	0	11.0	
					100.0	
Crisco	12	1 T.	—	—	12.0	
			—	—	100.0	
Lard, refined	15	1 T.	0	0	15.0	
			0	0	100.0	
Lard, unrefined	15	1 T.	—	0.3	14.1	
			—	2.2	94.0	
Margarine	15	1 T.	—	0.1	12.2	
			0.4	0.6	81.0	
Mazola	15	1 T.	0	0	14.7	
			0	0	98.1	
Mineral	14	1 T.	0	0	0	
			0	0	0	
Oleomargarine	15	1 T.	—	0.1	12.3	
			0.5	0.9	82.0	
Olive	14	1 T.	0	0	14.0	
			0	0	100.0	
Peanut	14	1 T.	—	—	14.0	
			—	—	100.0	
Pork fat, salt	15	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.		0.3	12.9	
				1.9	86.2	
Suet, beef	10	1 T.		0.5	8.2	
				4.7	81.8	
Wesson oil	10	1 T.		—	10.0	
				Trace	99.7	
Okra	50	7, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " pod	2.0	0.8	0.1	
			*4.0	1.6	0.2	

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated 0.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			Cal.
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
...	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. (5 pods)	3.0	1.0	0.1	15
...	65	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.0	1.0	0.1	10
...	15	1 T.	1.9	0.5	Trace	115
...	15	1 T.	*2.9	0.7	0.1	45
...	14	1 T.	—	0.1	12.3	130
...	15	5	0.5	0.9	82.0	15
...	15	5	2.8	0.2	3.4	35
...	15	3	18.6	1.5	22.6	25
...	20	5, 1" long	0	0	14.0	50
...	14	3	0	0	100.0	25
...	100		—	0.1	1.6	315
...	100		*0.0	0.9	11.0	360
...	100		1.5	0.2	3.0	425
...	100		10.0	1.0	20.0	
...	100		1.5	0.2	2.1	
...	100		10.0	1.0	13.5	
...	100		0.8	0.3	5.0	
...	100		4.3	1.7	25.0	
...	100		0.6	0.2	2.4	
...	100		4.0	1.5	17.0	
...	100		—	7.6	30.3	
...	100		—	7.6	30.3	
...	100		—	17.8	30.9	
...	100		Trace	17.8	30.9	
...	100		55.4	4.8	19.0	
...	100		*55.4	4.8	19.0	
...	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0
...	10	2	0	0	0	0
...	10	2 c.	0.1	—	—	15
...	10	2 c.	1.0	0.2	Trace	105
...	250	1 c.	3.7	—	—	110
...	240	1 c.	37.0	0.1	Trace	12
...	240	1 c.	7.5	4.7	6.0	10
...	240	1 c.	3.0	1.9	2.4	10
...	240	1 c.	11.3	4.1	5.0	10
...	240	1 c.	4.7	1.7	2.1	10
...	35	1 onion	2.9			10
...	75	5 sm.	*8.3			215
...	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.0	0.4	—	10
...	25	5 sm.	*2.7	0.6	—	10
...	200	1 onion	6.1	1.1	20.0	10
...	200	1 onion	*10.1	1.8	33.3	60
...	200	1 onion	2.1	0.2	Trace	50
...	200	1 onion	*8.5	1.0	0.1	35
...	200	1 onion	14.4			40
...	200	1 onion	*7.2			20
...	300	1 onion	11.6			4
...	300	1 onion	*3.9			4
...	565	1 onion ³	8.1			
...	100		*8.5			
...	100		6.3	2.2	0.6	
...	100		*6.3	2.2	0.6	
...	50	1, 2" diam.	4.0	0.8	0.2	
...	15	1 onion	*8.0	1.6	0.3	
...	15	1 onion	1.0			
...	15.2	1 onion	*7.0			
...	15.2	1 onion	1.0			
...	15.2	1 onion	*6.9			

Serving: 2 slices, 95 grams.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Opihi, Australian limpet	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		3.2	1.4
				2.8	1.3
Opossum	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		14.9	46.0
				13.0	45.6
Orach (mountain spinach)	75	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.8	3.3	0.3
			*3.7	4.5	0.4
Orach, Peruvian, see Quinoa.					
Oranges	100	1 sm.	8.5	0.8	0.2
			*8.5	0.8	0.2
Canned	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	19.9	1.1	0.3
			15.5	0.8	0.2
Mandarin type (loose-skin- ned)	100	2, 2" diam.	10.9	0.8	0.3
			10.9	0.8	0.3
Satsuma	100	2, 2" diam.	8.7	0.8	0.3
			*8.7	0.8	0.3
Seville	100	1 sm.	11.4	0.8	0.2
			11.4	0.8	0.2
Orange:					
Extract, Burnett, A.P.	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Juice, California	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.7	0.7	—
			13.1	0.6	—
Juice, Florida	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.3	0.7	—
			*9.4	0.6	—
Juice, Mandarin type	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.0	1.1	0.4
			9.2	0.9	0.3
Juice, canned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.8	0.7	0.1
			*9.0	0.6	0.1
Marmalade, com.	25	1 T.	17.5	0.1	—
			*69.9	0.3	Trace
Peel, candied	10	1 sm. piece	8.1	—	—
			80.6	0.4	0.3
Ovaltine, A.P.	9	1 T.	4.3	0.9	4.4
			72.1	14.3	7.4
Oxo (cubes)	5		0	1.6	0.2
			0	31.9	3.8
Oxo (extract)	10	1 heaping t.	0.1	1.6	0
			1.0	16.0	0
Oxtail soup, canned, conc.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.9	5.5	2.4
			8.5	3.9	1.7
Oysters:					
"Lynnhaven" (lg.)	135	6 ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	5.0	8.3	1.6
			3.7	6.2	1.2
"Cape Cod" (med.)	110	6 ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	4.0	6.8	1.3
			3.7	6.2	1.2
"Blue Point" (sm.)	100	6	3.7	6.2	1.2
			3.7	6.2	1.2
Canned	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.3	5.3	1.4
			3.9	8.8	2.4
Solids	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.0	7.2	1.6
			3.3	6.0	1.3
Oyster soup, cream of, canned	240	1 c.	10.5	3.6	4.1
			4.4	1.5	1.7
Oyster plant (salsify)	100	2, 6" long	15.5	3.5	1.0
			15.5	3.5	1.0
Oyster plant, cooked	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.2	0.9	Trace
			9.0	1.2	0.1

P

Pai-tsai, Chinese cabbage	110	1 c.	2.6	1.5	0.1
			2.4	1.4	0.1

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion.				P
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
Chinese cabbage.							
beans, see Palmetto							
cabbage	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	6.1	3.3	0.6	45	
cabbage, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.6	2.9	0.5	40	
cur, see Flours.							
fresh:							
in	50	3	18.2	2.5	7.5	155	
in	100	2	*36.4	5.1	15.1		
in	100	2		14.9	17.0	220	
in	100	2		14.9	17.0		
in	100	2		13.5	25.0	290	
in	100	2		13.5	25.0		
in	100	2		12.8	29.0	320	
in	100	2		12.8	29.0		
in	100	2		11.8	34.0	365	
in	100			11.8	34.0		
in	100			19.2	8.8	160	
in	100			19.2	8.8		
in	100			14.5	23.8	280	
in	100			14.5	23.8		
tropical, see Papaya.							
in	50	1, 4" long	8.4	2.6	0.4	50	
in	100	$\frac{1}{2}$, 5" diam.	16.8	5.2	0.9		
in	100	$\frac{1}{2}$, 5" diam.	10.0	0.6	0.1	45	
in	120	$\frac{1}{10}$ av.	10.0	0.6	0.1		
in	120	$\frac{1}{10}$ av.	6.9	0.4	0.6	35	
in	5	2 t. grated	*5.8	0.3	0.5		
in	5	2 t.		2.2	1.0	20	
in	5	2 t.		43.5	19.1		
in	5	2 t.		2.5	1.1	20	
in	5	2 t.		49.4	22.7		
in	5	2 t.		1.7	1.4	20	
in	1	1 t.		34.8	27.3		
in	1	1 t.	0.1	Trace	Trace	—	
in	100		9.0	3.7	1.0		
in	100		8.1	2.1	0.2	45	
in	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.1	2.1	0.2		
in	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.6	0.5	—	9	
in	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c., diced	6.3	2.0	—		
in	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c., diced	13.2	1.8	0.6	70	
in	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*11.0	1.5	0.5		
in	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.0	1.0	0.3	40	
in	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	*10.0	1.3	0.4		
in	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		40.5	8.3	245	
in	50	2 med.		35.2	7.2		
in	50	2 med.	3.1	1.4	—	20	
in	30	1 oz.	*6.2	2.8	—		
in	30	1 oz.	3.5	0.4	—	15	
in	30	1 oz.	*11.5	1.4	—		
in	30	1 oz.	5.7	0.2	—	25	
in	30	1 oz.	19.1	0.6	—		
in	240	1 c.	33.5	0.2	—	140	
in	240	1 c.	*14.0	0.1	—		
in	25		10.9	1.5	8.9	135	
in	25		*43.5	5.9	35.8		
in	25		13.7	1.8	7.6	135	
in	25		*54.8	7.3	30.4		
in	6	1 t.	0.3	0.7	2.6	30	
in	6	1 t.	4.8	11.4	43.8		

P

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Patience dock	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.0	1.0	0.3
			*10.0	1.3	0.4
Pea meal	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	28.0	35.9	17.5
			28.0	35.9	17.5
Pea soup, canned, conc. . . .	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	17.4	6.7	2.2
			12.4	4.8	1.2
Pea soup, cream of, canned . .	240	1 c.	15.4	4.8	8.6
			6.4	2.0	3.6
Peaches:	150	2, 2" diam.	13.2	0.8	0.2
			*8.8	0.5	0.1
Georgia	150	1 lg.	14.1		
			*9.4		
Maryland	150	1 lg.	12.9		
			*8.6		
North Carolina	150	1 lg.	13.8		
			*9.2		
New Jersey	150	1 lg.	11.4		
			*7.6		
Peaches, canned, water pack . .	140	2 halves	6.4	0.7	0.1
			*4.6	0.5	0.1
Peaches, canned, juice pack . .	140	2 halves	10.2	0.6	0.3
			*7.3	0.4	0.2
Peaches, canned, in syrup . . .	140	2 halves	25.5	0.6	0.1
			18.2	0.4	0.1
Peaches, canned, also see Fruits, canned					
Peaches, dried	50	3, 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ " diam.	26.5	1.7	—
			*53.0	3.4	—
Peach jam	25	1 T.	16.2	0.2	—
			57.0	0.7	Trace
Peach juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.4	0.2	—
			12.8	0.2	—
Peanuts	60	30	5.1	16.9	29.4
			*8.6	28.1	49.0
Peanut:					
Brittle	15	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 3"	10.1	1.8	2.7
			67.0	12.0	18.0
Butter	15	1 T.	2.6	4.4	7.0
			17.1	29.3	46.5
Butter, com.	15	1 T.	1.7	3.8	7.5
			11.0	25.0	50.0
Cookies	10	1	5.4	1.4	2.8
			53.5	14.0	27.5
Flour	100	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ c.	36.5	51.2	5.0
			36.5	51.2	5.0
Meal	100	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ c.	6.7	51.6	10.5
			*6.7	51.6	10.5
Meal, high grade	100	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.7	50.9	7.5
			21.7	50.9	7.5
Meal, med. grade	100	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ c.	23.0	44.9	8.8
			23.0	44.9	8.8
Oil	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	—	—	115.0
			—	—	100.0
Pears:					
Bartlett	150	1, 3" long	12.5	0.6	0.6
			*8.3	0.4	0.4
Canned, water pack	120	2 halves	4.9	0.4	0.1
			*4.1	0.3	0.1
Canned, juice pack	120	2 halves	9.6	0.2	0.1
			*8.0	0.2	0.1
Canned, in syrup	120	2 halves	22.1	0.2	0.1
			18.4	0.2	0.1

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat re-
Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			P
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
see also Fruits						
1.	30	1 oz.	22.8	0.4	0.2	95
.			75.9	1.3	0.6	
.	75	4 halves	27.0	1.7	0.3	120
.			*36.0	2.3	0.4	
.	100	1 av.	10.4	0.8	—	45
.			10.4	0.8	—	
.	25	1 T.	14.0	0.2	—	60
.			56.0	0.7	Trace	
k-eye, see Cowpeas						
very young	75	½ c.	7.5	4.2	0.2	40
.			10.0	5.5	0.3	
av.	75	½ c.	8.0	4.3	0.4	55
.			*10.6	5.8	0.5	
very old	75	½ c.	19.5	6.0	0.3	105
.			26.0	8.0	0.4	
cooked	70	½ c.	5.4	3.5	—	35
.			*7.7	5.0	—	
fat	80	½ c.	8.8	5.3	—	60
.			11.0	6.7	—	
pois"	75	½ c.	5.2	2.5	—	30
.			7.0	3.4	—	
lung, canned	70	½ c.	6.0	2.5	0.1	35
.			*8.6	3.6	0.2	
canned	70	½ c.	7.8	3.2	0.1	55
.			11.2	4.6	0.2	
.	100	½ c.	57.5	24.6	1.0	345
.			*57.5	24.6	1.0	
boiled	120	½ c.	22.9	8.3	—	130
.			*19.1	6.9	—	
boiled	120	½ c.	26.3	10.0	—	150
.			*21.9	8.3	—	
.	25	6 (whole)	1.9	2.4	18.2	185
.			*3.9	9.4	73.0	
logg	30	½ c.	23.1	3.7	0.6	115
.			77.1	12.2	1.9	
: sweet	25	3" piece	1.0	0.2	Trace	5
.			4.1	0.8	0.1	
, dried	5	1 t.	3.1	0.8	0.4	20
.			63.0	15.5	8.5	
olitan	25	3" piece	1.4	0.3	0.1	8
.			5.7	1.1	0.3	
fresh	25	3" piece	2.0	0.3	0.2	11
.			8.1	1.3	0.7	
dried	5	1 t.	3.5	0.5	0.4	20
.			70.0	9.4	7.7	
pot soup, canned, conc.	140	½ c.	11.5	6.4	4.2	115
.			8.2	4.6	3.0	
pot soup, canned	240	1 c.	12.0	5.5	3.1	100
.			5.0	2.3	1.3	
white	100			19.3	4.0	115
.				19.3	4.0	
yellow	100			18.7	0.8	85
.				18.7	0.8	
mons, American	50	1 sm.	9.5	0.4	0.2	40
.			*18.9	0.8	0.4	
mons, Japanese	100	1 lg.	15.9	0.8	0.4	70
.			*15.9	0.8	0.4	
lk, evaporated	15	1 T.	1.5	1.1	1.2	20
.			*9.8	7.1	7.9	
kn's, Quaker	20	2 T.	14.7	2.0	0.4	70
.			73.3	10.1	1.9	

P	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
	Petty rice, see Quinoa.					
	Pheasant	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		56.1	11.0
					24.4	4.8
	Pheasant, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		35.4	10.7
					30.8	8.3
	Pickrel (pike)	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.0	1.2
					18.7	5.5
	Pickled tripe	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		23.6	2.3
					20.5	2.0
	Pickles:					
	Cucumber, fresh, com.	20	3 sl.	3.2	0.2	—
				15.9	1.2	0.2
	Dill	50	1 med.	1.4	0.2	0.1
				2.7	0.5	0.2
	Mixed, chopped	20	1 T.	0.8	0.2	—
				4.0	1.1	0.4
	Onions, sour, com.	10	2	0.1	—	—
				1.0	0.2	Trace
	Onions, sweet, com.	10	2	3.7	—	—
				37.0	0.1	Trace
	Sour, chopped, com.	20	1 T.	—	0.1	0.1
				Trace	0.5	0.3
	Sweet, chopped, com.	20	1 T.	7.2	0.1	0.1
				36.0	0.5	0.3
	Sweet, mustard, chopped, com.	25	1 T.	6.3	—	0.2
				25.0	Trace	0.8
	Pidan (Chinese preserved egg)	100	1 lg.	—	26.8	18.5
				—	26.8	18.5
	Pies:					
	Apple	100	1 sl.	32.6	2.3	8.7
				*32.6	2.3	8.7
	Custard	100	1 sl.	27.7	5.5	14.4
				*27.7	5.5	14.4
	Gooseberry	100	1 sl.	31.0	2.8	9.4
				*31.0	2.8	9.4
	Mince	100	1 sl.	42.6	4.7	19.7
				*42.6	4.7	19.7
	Rhubarb	100	1 sl.	29.8	2.6	9.4
				*29.8	2.6	9.4
	Pigeon, red meat	20	1 av.	0.2	3.6	1.2
				1.2	17.9	6.2
	Pigeon, white meat	80	1 av.	0.2	12.0	4.2
				0.3	17.5	5.2
	Pigeon, whole	180	1 av.	0.5	33.4	22.5
				0.3	18.5	12.5
	Pigeon, roasted	80	1 lg.		21.4	10.6
					26.8	13.2
	Pigeon, see also Squab.					
	Pignolias	10	1 T.	0.7	3.4	4.9
				*6.9	33.9	49.4
	Pig's blood, prepared, Chinese	100			9.7	1.1
					9.7	1.1
	Pig's feet, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.7	16.6	12.1
				0.6	14.4	10.5
	Pig's feet, pickled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		18.7	17.0
					16.3	14.8
	Pike (pickerel)	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.0	1.2
					18.7	0.5
	Pilchard	50	3 av.	0.6	7.6	2.7
				1.3	15.3	5.2
	Pilchard, canned	50	3 av.		8.0	7.5
					16.0	15.0

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				P
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.	
25	1 cracker	18.6	2.8	1.3	100		
cheddar) cheese	20	1 cu. in.	74.2	11.1	5.0		
				3.2	6.4	75	
ese, Kraft	30	1/2" sl. 5 1/4 loaf		16.0	32.2		
				6.6	9.1	110	
anned	11	1 t.	0.8	0.1	Trace	4	
			6.8	0.9	0.3		
ignolias)	10	1 T.	0.7	3.4	4.9	60	
			*6.9	33.9	49.4		
iniones)	10	1 T.	2.6	0.6	6.0	70	
			*26.2	6.5	60.7		
sabine)	10	1 T.	0.8	2.8	5.4	65	
			*8.4	28.1	53.7		
	150	1 c. diced	13.9	0.6	0.5	65	
			*9.3	0.4	0.3		
water pack	150	2 sl.	15.2	0.4	0.1	65	
			*10.1	0.3	0.1		
juice pack	150	2 sl.	18.8	0.6	0.1	80	
			*12.5	0.4	0.1		
in syrup	150	2 sl.	27.9	0.6	0.1	120	
			*18.6	0.4	0.1		
see also Fruits, d.							
	50	1 sl.	40.0	0.4	0.2	165	
			80.0	0.8	0.4		
Burnett, A.P.	6	1 t.	2.8	0	0	12	
			47.0	0	0		
	120	1/2 c.	15.4	0.4	0.4	70	
			12.8	0.3	0.3		
natural, canned, ilian	120	1/2 c.	15.9	0.4	0.4	70	
			*13.3	0.3	0.3		
	10	1 T.	1.7	1.5	6.2	70	
			*17.3	14.6	61.9		
banana flour	100	2/3 c.	72.5	3.5	0.8	320	
			72.5	3.5	0.8		
s	20	1/4 c.	3.3	4.5	10.8	130	
			16.3	22.3	54.0		
extract, imitation, t, A.P.	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0	
			0	0	0		
ed	115	1/4 lb.	8.0	20.7	16.6	270	
			*7.0	18.0	14.4		
eamed	115	1/4 lb.		20.8	2.2	105	
				18.1	1.9		
(baking banana)	100		32.0	1.5	0.4	140	
			32.0	1.5	0.4		
	50	2, 2 1/2" long	4.2	0.4	0.1	20	
			*8.3	0.7	0.2		
d, water pack	100	3, 1/2 c.	4.5	0.4	0.1	20	
			*4.5	0.4	0.1		
d, in syrup	100	3, 1/2 c.	20.4	0.4	0.1	115	
			20.4	0.4	0.1		
d, see also Fruits, ed.							
n	50	4 med.	4.8	0.2	—	20	
			*9.6	0.5	—		
age	50	3 med.	5.9	0.4	—	25	
			*11.8	0.8	—		
fresh	50	2 med.	6.7	0.5	0.1	30	
			*13.3	0.9	0.2		
see also Prunes.							
se, red, pickled	100		4.9	0.5	1.3	35	
			4.9	0.5	1.3		

P	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of 100 gms.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
	Plum jam	25	1 T.	12.2	0.3	—
				49.0	1.1	1.1
	Plum pudding, canned . . .	90	3 oz.	29.7	4.1	12.6
				33.0	4.5	14.3
	Plum pudding, English, canned	90	3 oz.	46.9	3.9	7.3
				52.1	4.3	8.1
	Plum pudding, Heinz . . .	90	3 oz.	42.2	3.8	9.3
				46.9	4.2	10.3
	Poi, Hawaiian ¹	230	1 c.	34.5	2.1	0.2
				15.0	0.9	0.1
	Poi, Hawaiian ²	100		28.6	0.3	0.1
				*28.6	0.3	0.1
	Poi, Hawaiian, sour	100		9.8		
				*9.8		
	Pokeberry	100		3.7	2.6	0.3
				3.7	2.6	0.4
	Pollack	230	½ lb.		49.7	1.8
					21.6	0.8
	Pollack, fried	115	¼ lb.	7.6	19.0	7.9
				*6.6	16.5	6.9
	Pollack, steamed	115	¼ lb.		22.4	0.9
					19.5	0.8
	Pomegranates	155	½, 6½" diam.	26.0	2.3	2.5
				*16.8	1.5	1.6
	Pomegranates, Florida . . .	250	1 av.	17.8	1.2	2.2
				*7.1	0.5	0.9
	Pomegranate juice	120	½ c.	13.9	0.2	—
				*11.6	0.2	—
	Pompano	230	½ lb.		43.2	17.3
					18.8	7.5
	Pont l'Evêque cheese	20	1½" x 1" x ½"	1.3	4.1	5.0
				*6.7	20.3	25.0
	Pont l'Evêque cheese, American	20	1½" x 1" x ½"		5.0	5.9
					25.2	29.3
	Pop corn, popped	15	1 c.	11.8	1.6	0.8
				78.7	10.7	5.0
	Porgy	230	½ lb.		42.8	11.7
					18.6	5.1
Pork, fresh:						
	Brains	115	¼ lb.		13.5	11.9
					11.7	10.3
	Chops, loin, lean	230	½ lb.		46.7	43.7
					20.3	19.0
	Chops, loin, medium	230	2, ½ lb.		38.2	69.2
					16.6	30.1
	Chuck ribs and shoulder . .	230	½ lb.		39.8	71.5
					17.3	31.1
	Ham, lean	230	½ lb.		57.5	33.1
					25.0	14.4
	Ham, medium	230	½ lb.		35.2	66.5
					15.3	28.9
	Heart	115	¼ lb.		19.7	7.2
					17.1	6.3
	Kidney	115	¼ lb.	0.8	17.8	5.6
				0.7	15.5	4.8
	Liver	230	½ lb.	3.2	49.2	10.4
				1.4	21.4	4.5
	Lungs	115	¼ lb.		13.7	4.6
					11.9	4.0
	Middle cuts	230	½ lb.		36.1	83.5
					15.7	36.3

¹ 83 per cent water, as eaten.

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

² 69 per cent water, as prepared.

‡ Gross fat content.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			P
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.9	127.2	1270
				9.1	55.3	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.6	87.7	940
				13.3	34.2	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.5	29.9	455
				18.9	13.0	
and:						
back, pea-mealed,				16.2	2.8	90
in, fried	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		27.1	4.6	
breakfast, broiled				7.2	9.1	115
	20	4 str., 7" long (raw)		35.8	45.6	
				32.9	8.3	215
roiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		28.6	7.2	
				25.3	23.7	325
lled, lean	100	1 chop		25.3	23.7	
				18.6	50.3	545
lled, med. fat . .	100	1 chop		18.6	50.3	
				30.3	5.7	175
aked or boiled . .	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		26.4	4.9	
				33.0	5.0	180
roiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		28.7	4.3	
				3.8	6.8	80
viled	20	1 T.		19.0	34.1	
oked, parboiled and				32.2	4.4	175
	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		28.0	3.8	
				38.4	5.2	205
asted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		33.4	4.5	
				28.3	26.7	365
asted, med. fat . .	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		24.6	23.2	
				34.1	6.4	200
roasted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		29.7	5.6	
				27.1	23.1	325
oasted, lean . . .	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.6	20.1	
				22.4	46.5	525
oasted, med. fat . .	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		19.5	40.4	
				27.3	18.1	280
smoked, lean, cooked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.7	15.7	
			0.7	16.6	12.1	185
et, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.6	14.4	10.5	
				37.5	22.6	365
d, cold	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		32.6	19.7	
			7.6	6.9	14.9	200
re, fried	60	2 oz.	*12.7	11.5	24.8	
			0	19.0	10.4	175
ch, cooked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0	16.5	9.0	
iscellaneous:						
smoked	80	4 str. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long		8.4	51.8	515
				10.5	64.8	
alted backs	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		8.9	83.6	815
				7.7	72.7	
alted bellies	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		9.7	83.0	810
				8.4	72.2	
alt	60	2 oz.		1.0	51.7	480
				1.9	86.2	
smoked, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		45.5	47.8	630
				19.8	20.9	
smoked, medium fat .	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		37.5	89.2	995
				16.3	38.8	
cheese	200	1, $\frac{3}{8}$ " sl.	—	39.0	67.6	790
			—	19.5	33.8	

P	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Pork, miscellaneous:						
Pig's feet, pickled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		18.7	17.0
					16.3	14.4
Pig's tongue, pickled	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.4	22.9
					17.7	19.8
Sausage	35	2, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	0.4	4.5	15.5
				1.1	13.0	44.2
Sausage, Arles	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		30.8	58.2
					26.8	50.6
Sausage (pork and beef)	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		11.6	14.5
					19.4	24.1
Shoulder, smoked, medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		36.6	74.3
					15.9	32.5
Port du Salut cheese	25	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{4}$ "		5.3	6.3
					21.2	25.2
Postum Cereal	2	1 t.	1.4	0.3	0.1
				68.8	12.3	2.7
Postum, Instant	2	1 t.	1.7	0.1	0
				82.3	6.6	0
Potatoes:						
Sweet	150	1, 6" x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ "	39.2	2.7	1.1
				*26.1	1.8	0.7
Sweet, baked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ lg.	32.2	2.1	0.8
				32.2	2.1	0.8
Sweet, boiled	100	1 med.	20.1	1.1	0.5
				*20.1	1.1	0.5
Sweet, canned	75	2 sm.	31.1	1.4	0.3
				41.4	1.9	0.4
White	100	1 med.	18.0	2.2	0.1
				*18.0	2.2	0.1
White, baked	150	1 med.	38.1	4.6	0.1
				25.4	3.1	0.1
White, new, boiled	100	3 sm.	18.3	1.6	—
				*18.3	1.6	—
White, old, boiled	150	1 med.	29.6	2.1	—
				*19.7	1.4	—
French fried	110	1 heaping c.	41.0	4.2	9.9
				*37.3	3.8	9.0
Roasted	150	1 med.	41.0	4.2	1.5
				*27.3	2.8	1.0
White, desiccated	100		80.9	8.5	0.4
				80.9	8.5	0.4
Potato chips, Saratoga	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.0	2.0	11.9
				46.7	6.8	39.8
Potato flour	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	83.0	0.5	0.1
				83.0	0.5	0.1
Potato soup	250	1 c.	27.5	5.2	11.0
				*11.0	2.1	4.4
Prawn paste	6	1 t.		1.3	0.5
					21.6	8.6
Prawns	110	8 lg.		25.1	1.4
					22.8	1.3
Prawns, cooked	60	2 oz.		12.7	1.0
					21.2	1.8
Prawns, canned	60	2 oz.		13.9	0.8
					23.2	1.5
Preserves, jellies, com.	12	1 t.	7.7	—	—
				64.0	—	—
Pretzels	25	6 med.	18.2	2.4	1.0
				72.8	9.7	3.9
Prickly pear	100	1 av.	10.4	0.8	—
				10.4	0.8	—

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			P
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Cheese, Mysost	30	1 oz.		4.2	10.3	115
				14.0	34.5	
soup, canned, conc.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.4	8.5	—	40
			1.0	6.1	—	
Italian cheese	30	1 oz.		10.2	7.5	110
				34.2	25.1	
	50	2 med.	6.7	0.5	0.1	30
			*13.3	0.9	0.2	
water pack	100	3, $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.4	0.4	0.1	30
			*6.4	0.4	0.1	
, juice pack	100	3, $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	19.0	0.4	0.1	80
			19.0	0.4	0.1	
, in syrup	100	3, $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	22.3	0.5	0.1	95
			22.3	0.5	0.1	
	100	8 lg.	40.3	2.4	—	175
			*40.3	2.4	—	
cooked	100	4 med.	29.3	0.8	—	125
			29.3	0.8	—	
	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	34.6	1.0	0	145
			28.8	0.8	0	
canned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.6	0.5	0	65
			*13.0	0.4	0	
	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.5	1.2	—	95
			21.5	1.2	Trace	
s:						
dumpling	100		28.1	2.4	9.3	210
			*28.1	2.4	9.3	
custard	50		8.9	1.2	1.3	55
			*17.9	2.5	2.6	
mange	50		9.1	1.6	1.8	60
			*18.2	3.2	3.7	
late cornstarch	50		10.6	1.6	1.9	70
			*21.2	3.3	3.8	
ard, egg, baked	50		4.7	2.6	2.9	55
			*9.4	5.2	5.9	
iled	50		6.3	2.3	2.6	60
			*12.7	4.7	5.3	
Heinz	50		24.1	1.7	4.9	150
			48.2	3.5	9.9	
Heinz	50		24.5	2.0	6.0	165
			49.0	4.0	12.1	
, Heinz	90	3 oz.	42.2	3.8	9.3	275
			46.9	4.2	10.3	
(with milk)	100		20.8	4.5	9.3	190
			*20.8	4.5	9.3	
(with milk)	100		5.8	0.9	1.1	40
			*5.8	0.9	1.1	
lina (with milk)	100		5.5	1.2	1.1	40
			*5.5	1.2	1.1	
	100		36.6	4.3	18.1	335
			*36.6	4.3	18.1	
th raisins	100		40.8	3.8	15.6	330
			*40.8	3.8	15.6	
ca (with milk)	100		20.8	3.2	3.8	135
			*20.8	3.2	3.8	
ings for babies, see pages to 709.						
corn	23	1 c.	19.4	2.2	0.1	90
			84.3	9.6	0.4	
Rice, Quaker	15	1 c.	13.3	0.9	—	60
			88.8	6.2	0.2	
Wheat, Quaker	15	1 c.	11.3	2.3	0.2	55
			75.4	15.6	1.6	
nickel bread	25	1 sl.	12.4	1.7	0.3	50
			49.7	6.7	1.2	

P

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Pumpkin	120	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	4.8 *4.0	1.2 1.0	0.1 0.1
Pumpkin, canned	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.4 6.7	1.0 0.8	0.3 0.2
Puréed foods, see page 703.					
Purslane	100		2.5 *2.5	1.6 1.6	6.4 6.4

Q

Quail	100	1 whole		24.0 24.0	6.4 6.4
Quail, broiled	100	1 whole		22.0 22.0	6.0 6.0
Quinces	240	1, 3" x 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ "	1.4 *0.6	0.7 0.3	0.2 0.1
Quince juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.9 *9.1	0.4 0.3	— —
Quince-apple jam	25	1 T.	13.5 54.0	0.2 0.7	— Trace
Quinoa, dry seed	100		58.6 *58.6	22.8 22.8	5.7 5.7
Quinoa flour, "petty rice"	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	60.0 *60.0	19.0 19.0	5.0 5.0
Quinoa, leafy shoots	100			2.4 2.4	0.2 0.2

R

†Rabbit, front quarter, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		31.6 27.5	1.1 1.0
†Rabbit, hind quarter, boiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		33.2 28.9	1.3 1.1
†Rabbit, front quarter, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		34.6 30.1	4.9 4.3
†Rabbit, hind quarter, broiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		35.6 31.0	2.8 2.4
Rabbit, stewed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		30.6 26.6	8.9 7.7
Radishes	50	6 med.	1.7 *3.5	0.7 1.3	0.1 0.1
Raisins, Muscat, dried (seeded)	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	48.3 *64.4	0.8 1.1	— —
Raisins, Sultana or Thompson seedless, dried	60	$\frac{1}{3}$ c.	38.8 *64.7	1.0 1.7	— —
Ralston, Shredded	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	23.2 74.0	2.6 8.5	0.3 1.0
Ralston, wheat cereal	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.0 70.0	4.5 15.0	0.5 1.7
Raspberries:					
Black	75	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	7.3 *9.7	1.3 1.7	0.8 1.0
Red	75	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	7.3 *9.7	0.8 1.0	0.4 0.6
Canned, water pack	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	14.0 10.0	1.3 0.9	1.3 0.9
Canned, juice pack	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	18.2 13.0	0.8 0.6	0.6 0.4

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion.			R
	Grams	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
in syrup	140	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	38.9 27.8	0.8 0.6	0.7 0.5	170
see also canned.						
.	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	32.1 80.2	2.9 7.3	0.7 1.8	150
, black, juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.8 10.7	0.2 0.2	— —	55
, red, juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.0 8.3	0.5 0.4	— —	45
extract, Burnett,						
.	6	1 t.	2.8 47.0	0 0	0 0	12
jam	25	1 T.	14.3 57.3	0.2 0.7	— Trace	60
na	140	1	32.0 22.7	1.8 1.3	1.1 0.8	150
age	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.5 5.8	1.1 1.8	0.1 0.2	20
, see Venison.						
milk cheese	30	1 oz.	0.9 *3.0	7.1 23.8	12.9 43.1	155
sickle, com.	25	1 T.	7.0 28.0	0.1 0.5	0.1 0.3	30
.	90	1 c. diced	2.3 *2.5	0.5 0.6	0.6 0.7	20
b, cooked without sugar	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	2.2 2.2	0.4 0.4	0.4 0.4	15
b, canned, water pack .	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	3.0 3.0	0.4 0.4	0.4 0.4	18
b pie	100	1 sl.	29.8 *29.8	2.6 2.6	9.4 9.4	220
ented, Japanese	100		69.6 69.6	5.5 5.5	0.2 0.2	310
d	20	1 heaping T.	15.4 *76.8	1.4 7.2	0.4 2.0	75
ral brown, White House	20	1 heaping T.	15.3 76.1	1.3 6.7	0.5 2.2	70
hed	20	1 heaping T.	15.5 *77.4	1.4 6.9	0.1 0.4	70
e, White House	20	1 heaping T.	16.2 81.0	1.3 6.4	0.1 0.6	75
(Indian)	20	$\frac{1}{6}$ c.	13.1 65.4	2.8 14.0	0.2 0.9	65
d	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	22.5 22.5	2.3 2.3	0.9 0.9	110
akes, Heinz	30	1 c.	25.0 83.2	3.2 10.5	0.3 0.9	120
akes, White House	30	1 c.	24.4 81.2	2.7 8.9	0.6 2.0	115
ur	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	68.0 68.0	8.6 8.6	6.1 6.1	370
ispies, Kellogg	30	1 c.	26.5 88.4	1.8 6.0	0.1 0.3	115
ishings	100		64.0 64.0	11.6 11.6	10.1 10.1	405
dding (with milk)	100		20.8 *20.8	4.5 4.5	9.3 9.3	190
uffed, Quaker	15	1 c.	13.3 88.8	0.9 6.2	0.1 0.2	60
White House	20	1 heaping T.	16.1 80.3	1.3 6.6	0.1 0.6	70
Romano, Italian cheese	50	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.		3.4 6.9	19.7 39.5	195

R

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Ricotta salata, Italian cheese	30	1 oz.	0.6	4.1	15.4
			2.0	13.8	51.3
Rippled Wheat, Loose-Wiles	10	1 biscuit	7.9	1.1	0.3
			*78.8	11.1	2.5
Robinson's Patent Barley	9	1 T.	7.0	0.6	0.1
			*78.3	6.6	1.0
Robinson's Patent Groats	9	1 T.	6.4	1.1	0.5
			*71.5	12.4	6.6
Roe, cod, fried	60	2 oz.	2.4	12.4	7.1
			*3.0	20.6	11.9
Roe, herring, fried	60	2 oz.	2.8	14.0	9.5
			*4.7	23.4	15.8
Roe, shad	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ lg.	3.6	29.3	5.3
			2.6	20.9	3.8
Roe, sturgeon (caviar)	15	2 t.	1.1	4.5	3.0
			7.6	30.0	19.7
Rolled Oats	20	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	13.3	3.3	1.5
			66.3	16.7	7.3
Rolled Oats, cooked	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	16.8	4.2	1.8
			14.0	3.5	1.5
Rolls:					
French	40	1	22.3	3.4	1.0
			55.7	8.5	2.5
Plain, enriched	50	1, $4\frac{1}{2}$ " x $2\frac{1}{2}$ "	27.0	4.1	3.0
			54.1	8.2	6.1
Sweet, unenriched	50	1	28.0	3.9	2.7
			56.0	7.8	5.4
Vienna	50	1	28.3	4.3	1.1
			56.5	8.5	2.2
Water	40	1	21.7	3.6	1.2
			54.2	9.0	3.0
Romaine	50	5 leaves	1.5	0.5	—
			3.0	1.0	—
Romano cheese (Pecorino)	30	1 oz.		9.3	8.3
				31.2	27.7
Root beer	230	1 c.	18.4	—	—
			8.0	—	—
Root beer beverage, Hires	230	1 c.	21.4	0	0
			*9.3	0	0
Roquefort cheese	15	1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ " x $2\frac{1}{2}$ "	0.3	3.4	4.4
			*1.8	22.6	29.5
Roquette (Rocket salad)	100		0.3	0.7	0.4
			*0.3	0.7	0.4
Rose extract, Burnett, A.P.	5	1 t.	0	0	0
			0	0	0
Runko, with malt	15	1 T.	12.6	0.6	0.4
			83.7	3.8	2.6
Russian dressing	18	1 T.	1.6	0.3	9.3
			9.0	1.9	51.7
Russian turnips	120	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	8.7	1.3	0.1
			*7.3	1.1	0.1
Rutabagas (Swedish turnips)	120	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	8.7	1.3	0.1
			*7.3	1.1	0.1
Rye bread	25	1 sl.	13.3	2.3	0.2
			53.2	9.0	0.6
Rye bread, black	30	1 sl.	14.7	2.9	0.2
			48.9	9.6	0.6
Rye bread, Jewish	30	1 sl.	15.6	2.7	0.3
			52.0	9.1	1.1
Rye bread, whole	30	1 sl.	11.4	3.6	0.2
			34.7	11.9	0.6

* Largely assimilable.

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† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			R
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
grain	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	21.2	3.2	0.5	105
of	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*70.8	10.6	1.7	
			35.9	6.0	0.8	180
	30	1 c.	71.8	12.0	1.6	
			22.7	3.0	0.4	110
			*75.8	10.0	1.4	
see Flours.						
	130	1 c.	93.0	17.7	2.6	465
			71.5	13.6	2.0	
Ralston	6	1	4.4	0.7	0.1	20
			74.0	12.0	1.0	

S

	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	37.6	0.1	0.1	155
			*94.0	0.3	0.2	
	100		83.9	0.9	0.2	350
			83.9	0.9	0.2	
ding (with milk) . .	100		5.8	0.9	1.1	40
			*5.8	0.9	1.1	
essings:						
	20	1 T.	3.0	0.9	2.0	35
			15.0	4.5	10.0	
	11	2 t.	—	—	6.6	60
			—	—	60.0	
n, com.	11	2 t.	2.0	0.1	3.9	45
			*18.1	0.6	35.5	
nnaise, com.	20	1 T.	0.4	0.3	16.0	150
			2.0	1.4	80.0	
al oil (Mayonnaise						
e)	15	1 T.	0.5	0.2	0.4	7
			3.0	1.5	2.7	
le Whip	20	1 T.	1.7	0.2	10.2	105
			8.5	1.2	50.9	
an	18	1 T.	1.6	0.3	9.3	95
			9.0	1.9	51.7	
Cream, com.	20	1 T.	2.0	0.4	5.6	60
			10.0	2.0	28.0	
sand Island, com. . .	15	1 T.	2.6	0.1	5.9	65
			17.3	0.8	39.0	
	60	2 oz.		14.3	22.1	265
				23.9	36.8	
:						
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		50.6	29.4	480
				22.0	12.8	
ed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		29.5	1.4	135
				25.7	1.2	
d	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	6.2	22.7	11.7	225
			5.4	19.7	10.2	
ned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.0	14.9	230
				19.1	13.0	
ed, Atlantic	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		21.1	12.5	200
				21.1	12.5	
ed, Blueback	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		20.0	4.5	125
				20.0	4.5	
ed, Chinook	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		17.7	15.7	220
				17.7	15.7	
ed, Chum	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		20.7	6.7	150
				20.7	6.7	
ed, Coho	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		21.1	8.5	165
				21.1	8.5	
ed, Pink	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		21.4	7.0	155
				21.4	7.0	

S

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Salmon:					
Canned, Sockeye	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		20.8	11.2
				20.8	11.2
Canned, steelhead trout	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		21.3	9.0
				21.3	9.0
Salmon paste	6	1 t.		1.2	0.5
				20.1	8.9
Salmon-anchovy paste	6	1 t.	0.5	0.8	0.5
			*8.5	14.0	9.1
Salmon-shrimp paste	6	1 t.	0.2	1.1	0.5
			*4.2	18.2	9.3
Salsiccia, fresca di Napoli	60	2 oz.	0.4	6.8	14.5
			0.6	11.4	24.1
Salsiccia, secca di Basilicata	60	2 oz.	0.5	12.4	26.5
			0.8	20.7	44.2
Salsify (vegetable oyster)	100	2, 6" long	15.5	3.5	1.0
			15.5	3.5	1.0
Salsify, cooked	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.2	0.9	Trace
			9.0	1.2	0.1
Samp, coarse hominy	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	39.7	4.2	0.3
			79.4	8.3	0.5
<i>Sandwich spread</i> , Heinz	20	1 T.	3.4	—	7.4
			17.0	0.3	36.8
Sap Sago cheese	5	1 t. grated		2.1	0.1
				41.7	2.0
Sapodilla, Cuban	200	1 av.	22.0	1.0	—
			*11.0	0.5	—
Sapodilla, Florida	200	1 av.	16.8	0.6	2.0
			*8.4	0.3	1.0
Sardine-tomato paste	6	1 t.	0.5	1.1	0.6
			*7.9	19.0	9.5
Sardines in mustard or <i>Souse</i> sauce	100		2.2	20.0	11.8
			2.2	20.0	11.8
Sardines in oil (American)	50	4, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long		9.6	12.8
				19.2	25.5
Sardines in oil (French)	75	3, 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ " long		18.6	9.5
				24.8	12.7
Sardines in tomato sauce (American)	95	1, 5" long		17.2	5.3
				18.1	5.6
Sauces:					
Chili, com.	20	1 T.	5.2	0.5	0.2
			26.0	2.5	0.8
Cranberry	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	44.6	0.2	0.3
			44.6	0.2	0.3
Hollandaise	40	2 T.	—	1.0	17.5
			—	2.5	43.8
Soy (Toyo), Philippine	10	2 t.	1.2	0.5	0.2
			*12.0	4.5	1.5
Soy bean, Hawaiian	10	2 t.	0.5	0.8	—
			5.0	7.8	—
Worcestershire, Lea & Perrins	5	1 t.	1.0	Trace	—
			19.0	1.1	Trace
Sauerkraut, raw	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.0	1.4	0.4
			3.8	1.7	0.5
Sauerkraut, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.5	1.5	0.4
			3.5	1.5	0.4
Sauerkraut, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.4	1.1	0.2
			3.4	1.1	0.2
Sauerkraut juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	—	—
			0.7	—	—

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion			S
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
ed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		30.8	58.2	700
	60	2 oz.		26.8	50.6	
			9.4	8.3	11.0	175
	60	2 oz.	*15.7	13.8	18.4	
			8.8	3.2	13.5	175
	60	2 oz.	*14.7	5.3	22.5	
				8.9	20.8	230
est	60	2 oz.		14.8	34.6	
			0	7.0	13.1	150
	75	6 sl.	0	11.7	21.8	
			0.2	14.0	13.2	180
a, all meat	75	6 sl.	0.3	18.7	17.6	
				10.8	13.3	170
a, added cereal	75	6 sl.		14.4	17.8	
			2.7	11.1	11.9	165
chweiger	60	2 oz.	3.6	14.8	15.9	
			0	9.2	14.3	170
	60	2 oz.	0	15.4	23.8	
ast			10.1	5.2	12.2	175
	60	2 oz.	*16.8	8.7	20.4	
ry style	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		18.6	31.5	370
				16.2	27.4	
ot Farm, cooked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	—	22.9	62.3	670
			Trace	19.9	54.2	
er	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		33.4	48.3	585
				29.0	42.0	
fort (Frankfurter)	120	2, 7" x $\frac{3}{4}$ "	1.3	23.5	22.3	310
			1.1	19.6	18.6	
kfurter, all meat	120	2, 7" x $\frac{3}{4}$ "		16.9	25.0	300
				14.1	20.8	
kfurter, added cereal	120	2, 7" x $\frac{3}{4}$ "	18.2	16.9	4.0	180
			15.2	14.1	3.3	
l cheese	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		17.2	23.3	285
				15.0	20.3	
an:						
picollo	60	2 oz.	0.8	12.5	24.1	280
			1.4	20.8	40.2	
ervellata fresca	60	2 oz.	0.3	6.0	20.6	215
			0.5	10.1	34.4	
lsiccia, fresca di Napoli	60	2 oz.	0.4	6.8	14.5	165
			0.6	11.4	24.1	
lsiccia secca di Basilicata	60	2 oz.	0.5	12.4	26.5	300
			0.8	20.7	44.2	
r	60	2 oz.	0.9	10.0	12.4	195
			1.5	16.7	20.6	
h style	60	2 oz.	0	9.8	13.9	130
			0	16.4	23.1	
	35	2, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	0.4	4.6	15.5	165
			1.1	13.0	44.2	
, fried	60	2 oz.	7.6	6.9	14.9	200
			*12.7	11.5	24.8	
and beef	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		11.6	14.5	180
				19.4	24.1	
mi	60	2 oz.		14.3	22.1	265
				23.9	36.8	
e	60	2 oz.	0	7.9	7.4	100
			0	13.2	12.3	
mer	60	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		15.6	26.7	310
				26.0	44.5	
cabbage	120	1 c.	7.2	4.0	0.8	55
			6.0	3.3	0.7	
cabbage, boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.1	1.3	—	10
			*1.1	1.3	—	

S	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
	Sbrinz cheese	30	1 oz.	0.4	10.2	8.6
				*1.3	34.0	28.8
	Scallions, bulbs	12	4 sm.	2.1	0.1	Trace
				17.3	1.2	0.2
	Scallops, sm.	100	10 ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	3.4	14.8	0.1
				3.4	14.8	0.1
	Scallops, med.	175	10 ($\frac{1}{2}$ c.)	5.9	25.9	0.2
				3.4	14.8	0.1
	Scallops, lg.	220	6 (1 c.)	7.4	32.5	0.2
				3.4	14.8	0.1
	Scallops, steamed	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	—	22.4	1.4
				Trace	22.4	1.4
	Scamorzza, Italian cheese . .	30	1 oz.	0.5	8.0	7.7
				*1.8	26.6	25.8
	Schmierkäse	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		14.0	4.5
					28.0	9.0
	Scones (with egg)	100	1	59.5	9.2	10.5
				*59.5	9.2	10.5
	Scones (without egg)	100	1	57.1	8.4	13.2
				*57.1	8.4	13.2
	Scotch broth, canned	240	1 c.	8.9	4.8	13.2
				3.7	2.0	5.5
	Screw bean (Mesquite), dried .	100		77.1	12.2	2.5
				77.1	12.2	2.5
	Scup	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.7	11.5
					19.0	5.0
	Sea-kale (sea-cabbage)	100	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.8	1.4	0.4
				3.8	1.4	0.4
	Sea-kale, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.3	0.4	0.1
				*0.3	0.4	0.1
	Sea-trout	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.7	4.6
					19.0	2.0
	Sea-perch	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	1.4	41.2	1.6
				0.6	17.9	0.7
	Semolina	20	2 T.	15.5	2.3	0.4
				*77.5	11.7	1.8
	Semolina pudding (milk) . . .	100		5.5	1.2	1.1
				*5.5	1.2	1.1
	Sesame seeds, black	100		8.9	19.7	45.4
				8.9	19.7	45.4
	Shad	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.2	21.9
					18.8	9.5
	Shad roe	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ lg.	3.6	29.3	5.3
				2.6	20.9	3.8
	Shallots, bulbs	12	4 sm.	2.1	0.1	Trace
				17.3	1.2	0.2
	Shepherd's pie	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	28.1	16.3	12.4
				*12.2	7.1	5.4
	Sherbet	60	2 oz.	15.0	1.2	1.8
				*25.0	2.0	3.0
	Shortbread	25	1 sq.	16.4	1.4	5.7
				65.6	5.8	23.0
	Shredded Ralston	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	23.2	2.6	0.3
				74.0	8.5	1.0
	Shredded Wheat, N. B. C. . .	30	1 biscuit	24.5	3.3	0.5
				81.6	11.0	1.6
	Shrimps	65	8 med.	1.1	12.5	0.3
				1.7	19.3	0.4
	Shrimps, boiled	65	6 med.		14.1	0.5
					21.7	0.8
	Shrimps, canned (dry pack) .	65	8 med.		16.6	0.5
					25.5	0.8

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by

E OF NUTRITIVE AND CALORIC VALUES OF FOODS (89)

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			S
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Canned (wet pack)	65	6 med.		13.0	0.3	55
				20.0	0.5	
ate	6	1 t.	0.1	1.1	0.7	11
ap, cream of, canned	240	1 c.	*2.5	18.3	11.5	110
			11.5	3.8	5.0	
ream, see 20% Cream,			4.8	1.6	2.1	
	115	1 lb.	8.6	17.2	18.9	285
			*7.5	15.0	16.4	
	120	3, 5 1/2" long		21.1	2.2	105
				17.6	1.8	
ed	100	3	5.0	25.0	30.8	410
			*5.0	25.0	30.8	
illed	30	6 lg.		3.3	0.5	20
				11.0	1.6	
s	75	1 c.	5.8	1.8	0.2	35
			7.7	2.4	0.2	
merican, is usually fillet nder.						
ropean	230	1 lb.	2.1	36.6	3.9	195
			0.9	15.9	1.7	
ropean, fried	115	1 lb.	6.2	23.1	21.2	315
			*5.4	20.1	18.4	
ropean, steamed	115	1 lb.		20.2	1.5	95
				17.6	1.3	
a syrup	20	1 T.	12.7		—	50
			*63.3		—	
	160	1 c.	100.8	3.8	—	430
			*63.0	2.4	—	
r dock	25	1 c.	Trace	0.5	Trace	2
			*0.1	2.1	0.2	
and Broths, canned:						
ragus, Campbell, A.P.	140	1 c.	9.8	1.8	1.7	65
			7.0	1.3	1.2	
ragus, cream of, Heinz	240	1 c.	9.1	1.9	7.9	120
			3.8	0.8	3.3	
ragus, cream of, Heinz	120	1/2 c.	7.8	3.0	5.9	100
			6.5	2.5	4.9	
, Campbell, A.P.	140	1/2 c.	19.6	8.5	2.5	140
			14.0	6.1	1.8	
with smoked pork, inz	120	1/2 c.	21.0	8.3	3.5	150
			17.5	6.9	2.9	
Campbell, A.P.	120	1/2 c.	9.8	6.7	1.6	85
			8.2	5.6	1.3	
noodle, Heinz	120	1/2 c.	7.2	5.9	4.3	95
			6.0	4.9	3.5	
with vegetables, Heinz	120	1/2 c.	12.2	5.6	3.1	100
			10.2	4.7	2.6	
tock, vegetable, Heinz	120	1/2 c.	17.0	3.5	1.1	95
			14.2	2.9	0.9	
lon, beef	240	1 c.	0.7	6.2	0.2	30
			0.3	2.6	0.1	
lon, Campbell, A.P.	120	1/2 c.	0.1	4.7	—	20
			0.1	3.9	—	
y	230	1 c.	11.5	4.8	6.4	125
			5.0	2.1	2.8	
y, Campbell, A.P.	140	1/2 c.	9.5	2.0	2.2	70
			6.8	1.4	1.6	
y, cream of, Crosse & ckwell	240	1 c.	11.5	4.1	5.3	115
			4.8	1.7	2.2	

S

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Soups and Broths, canned:					
Chicken, Campbell, A.P.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.1 2.6	4.3 3.6	1.4 1.2
Chicken gumbo, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.0 8.6	4.2 3.0	1.0 0.7
Chicken noodle, Campbell, A.P.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.0 6.7	4.7 3.9	1.8 1.6
Chicken noodle, Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	8.0 6.7	3.2 2.7	2.6 2.2
Clam chowder, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.6 9.7	4.2 3.0	5.7 4.4
Clam chowder, Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.2 10.2	2.6 2.2	1.9 1.6
Consommé, Campbell, A.P.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1 0.1	4.7 3.9	— —
Fish chowder, Clapp	28.4	1 oz.	2.2 7.6	0.5 1.8	— 0.2
Gumbo, Creole, Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.1 8.4	1.4 1.2	3.5 2.9
Julienne, Campbell, A.P.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.1 0.9	3.1 2.6	— —
Liver soup, Beech-Nut	28.4	1 oz.	2.0 7.0	0.9 3.2	0.3 1.0
Liver soup, Campbell	28.4	1 oz.	2.1 7.5	1.0 3.4	0.3 0.9
Liver soup, Clapp	28.4	1 oz.	1.6 5.6	1.5 5.3	0.2 0.7
Liver soup, Gerber	28.4	1 oz.	1.8 6.5	1.1 3.8	0.2 0.7
Liver soup, Libby	28.4	1 oz.	2.2 7.8	1.1 3.9	— 0.2
Liver and beef soup, Heinz	28.4	1 oz.	1.8 6.5	1.2 4.4	0.6 2.3
Mock turtle, Campbell, A.P.	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.8 6.0	7.5 5.8	1.0 0.8
Mulligatawny, Campbell, A.P.	150	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	16.1 10.7	4.1 2.7	0.8 0.5
Mushroom broth	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	— 1.2	— 1.1	0.2 0.2
Mushroom, cream of, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.2 9.4	5.0 3.6	8.5 6.1
Mushroom, cream of, Crosse & Blackwell	240	1 c.	11.5 4.8	4.6 1.9	5.3 2.2
Mushroom, cream of, Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.0 9.2	4.2 3.5	6.2 5.2
Mutton, Campbell, A.P.	150	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.9 4.9	6.4 4.6	0.8 0.6
Onion, cream of, Crosse & Blackwell	240	1 c.	11.3 4.7	4.1 1.7	5.0 2.1
Oxtail, Campbell	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.9 8.5	5.5 3.9	2.4 1.7
Oyster, cream of, Crosse & Blackwell	240	1 c.	10.3 4.3	3.6 1.5	5.5 2.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.

Food items.	Size of portion		Value of portion.			S
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Broths, canned:						
Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	17.4	6.7	2.2	120
Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.4	4.8	1.6	
			11.5	3.5	2.4	85
			9.6	2.9	2.0	
Heinz, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.5	6.4	4.2	115
			8.2	4.6	3.0	
Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.8	4.8	3.7	100
			9.0	4.0	3.1	
Heinz, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.4	8.5	—	40
			1.0	6.1	—	
Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.0	4.9	5.2	115
			9.2	4.1	4.3	
Heinz, cream of, Crosse & Blackwell	240	1 c.	11.5	3.8	5.0	110
			4.8	1.6	2.1	
Heinz, cream of, Crosse & Blackwell	240	1 c.	11.5	4.3	5.0	110
			4.8	1.8	2.1	
Heinz, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.4	2.2	2.0	80
			8.9	1.6	1.4	
Heinz	240	1 c.	16.3	2.0	1.8	90
			13.6	1.7	1.5	
Heinz, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	17.4	5.2	2.0	110
			12.4	3.7	1.4	
Heinz, beef, Campbell, A.P.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.8	11.1	2.9	105
			5.6	7.9	2.1	
Heinz, vegetable, Heinz	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	19.2	3.5	0.5	100
			16.0	2.9	0.4	
Dried ingredients:						
Heinz Crocker pea soup	113	1 pkg.	68.7	26.4	1.7	395
			60.6	23.3	1.5	
Heinz Crocker vegetable bottle soup (meat flavor)	64	1 pkg.	37.3	6.4	1.7	190
			58.5	10.1	2.6	
Heinz, "sour apple," West	115	$\frac{1}{5}$ av.	19.7	0.9	0.1	85
			17.2	0.8	0.1	
Heinz	60	2 oz.	0	7.9	7.4	100
			0	13.2	12.3	
Beans:						
Heinz	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	9.9	10.2	4.9	130
			13.2	13.6	6.3	
Heinz, cooked	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	17.2	18.2	4.4	195
			13.8	14.4	3.5	
Heinz	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	16.5	15.1	7.6	200
			16.5	15.1	7.6	
Heinz	100		3.1	18.7	9.4	175
			3.1	18.7	9.4	
Heinz, canned	250	1 c.	10.0	50.0	32.6	550
			4.0	20.0	13.0	
Heinz	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	33.1	30.2	15.3	400
			33.1	30.2	15.3	
Heinz Bean:			1.6	9.0	4.1	80
Heinz (Tofu)	100		1.6	9.0	4.1	
Heinz	100	$1\frac{1}{4}$ c. sc.	8.0	45.0	11.0	320
			8.0	45.0	11.0	
Heinz	100	$1\frac{1}{4}$ c. sc.	8.2	38.3	14.9	325
			8.2	38.3	14.9	
Heinz	100		0.6	3.5	2.4	40
			0.6	3.5	2.4	

S	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
Soy bean:						
Sauce, Hawaiian	10	2 t.	0.5	0.8	—	
			5.0	7.8	—	
Sauce (Toyo), Philippines	10	2 t.	1.2	0.5	0.2	
			*12.0	4.5	1.5	
Sprouts	65	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.1	5.5	1.2	
			6.3	8.5	1.8	
Spanish melon	200	$\frac{1}{2}$ med.	10.0	1.2	—	
			*5.0	0.6	—	
Spaghetti	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	75.9	12.1	0.4	
			75.9	12.1	0.4	
Spaghetti in tomato sauce, Heinz	240	1 c.	35.5	5.0	0.7	
			14.8	2.1	0.3	
Spinach	75	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.7	1.6	0.2	
			*2.3	2.1	0.3	
Spinach, cooked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	2.0	0.2	
			*0.8	2.0	0.2	
Spinach, canned	225	1 c.	5.4	5.4	0.7	
			2.4	2.4	0.3	
Spinach, New Zealand	75	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.1	1.7	0.2	
			4.1	2.2	0.2	
Spinach soup, cream of, canned	240	1 c.	13.4	4.6	15.2	
			5.6	1.9	5.9	
Spleen, fresh:						
Beef and veal	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.8	3.5	
				18.1	3.0	
Hog	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.7	4.4	
				17.1	3.8	
Sheep	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		21.6	4.5	
				18.8	3.9	
Sponge cake	50	1 sq.	26.7	4.7	3.5	
			*53.5	9.5	7.0	
Sprats	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		39.3	33.3	
				17.1	14.5	
Sprats, fresh, fried	60	2 oz.		13.4	22.7	
				22.3	37.9	
Sprats, smoked, grilled	60	2 oz.		15.1	13.9	
				25.1	23.2	
Spring greens, boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.9	1.7	—	
			*0.9	1.7	—	
Squab (pigeon)	50	1 whole		9.3	11.0	
				18.6	22.1	
Squab, with skin, cooked	50	1 whole		9.5	11.0	
				19.0	22.0	
Squash:						
Cushaw	125	1 c.	9.1	1.5	0.4	
			7.3	1.2	0.3	
Summer, white	250	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. diced	9.8	1.5	0.3	
			3.9	0.6	0.1	
Summer, boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.5	0.5	—	
			3.5	0.5	Trace	
Winter	250	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. diced	22.0	3.8	0.8	
			8.8	1.5	0.3	
Winter, boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.0	1.0	0.3	
			*4.0	1.0	0.3	
Canned	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.1	1.1	0.6	
			10.5	0.9	0.5	
Squeteague (sea-trout)	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.7	4.6	
				19.0	2.0	

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			S
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
aw	50	6 med.	8.3	1.3	—	40
kidney pie	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	*16.6	2.7	Trace	355
ese	25	$1\frac{1}{2}" \times 1\frac{1}{2}" \times 1\frac{1}{2}"$	*16.7	15.4	18.9	105
bread (carob bean)	10	4" piece	—	29.0	31.2	30
foods, see page 703.			67.0	5.7	1.1	
ries:						
.	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.0	1.0	0.6	35
.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*6.0	1.0	0.6	120
d, water pack	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	28.8	0.8	—	35
d, juice pack	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.0	0.7	—	50
d, in syrup	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.0	0.6	0.4	125
erry . extract, Burnett,	6	1 t.	5.8	0.8	0.8	12
erry jam, com.	25	1 T.	28.0	0.5	0.2	70
erry juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.8	0	0	25
beans	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	47.0	0	0	35
beans, cooked	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	17.1	0.1	—	25
beans, boiled in much	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*68.5	0.5	Trace	15
beans, canned	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.1	0.2	—	25
on	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	5.1	0.2	—	180
on, steamed	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	5.8	1.8	0.2	180
on caviar	15	2 t.	7.7	2.4	0.2	50
ash, canned	210	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.5	1.3	0.1	200
beef	10	1 T	3.5	1.0	0.1	80
udding	100		2.5	1.0	0.1	335
udding with raisins	100		1.9	0.8	0.1	330
e, brown	10	1 T.	4.9	1.4	0.1	35
erara	10	1 T.	3.8	1.1	0.1	40
e, granulated	105	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	35.4	3.7	1.6	430
e, granulated	13	1 T.	28.4	6.6	5.7	50
e, coarse, powdered	90	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	24.7	5.7	5.7	370
a, anhydrous	10	1 T.	1.1	4.5	3.0	40
			7.6	30.0	19.7	
			37.1	7.5	2.1	
			*17.7	3.6	1.0	
				0.5	8.2	
				4.7	81.8	
			36.6	4.3	18.1	
			*36.6	4.3	18.1	
			40.8	3.8	15.6	
			*40.8	3.8	15.6	
			9.1	—	—	
			*91.0	—	—	
			9.9	—	—	
			*99.3	0.5	—	
			104.9	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
			13.0	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
			89.9	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
			10.0	—	—	
			*?100.0	—	—	

S	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Sugars:						
Crystal squares, Domino	3	1	2.8	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
Crystal tablets, Domino	5	1	4.9	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
Granulated	105	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	104.9	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
Granulated	5	1 t.	5.0	—	—	
			*99.9	—	—	
Maple	60	1, $1\frac{1}{2}$ " sq.	49.7	—	—	
			*82.8	—	—	
Old fashioned brown, Domino	10	1 T.	9.3	0	0	
			*92.8	0	0	
Tablet	5	1 tablet	5.0	—	—	
			*?100.0	—	—	
Surinam-cherry	30	10	6.7	0.3	—	
			22.3	1.0	0.1	
Swedes	120	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	5.2	1.7	—	
			*4.3	1.4	—	
Swedes, boiled	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.6	1.1	—	
			*3.8	0.9	—	
Sweetbreads:¹						
Beef	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		19.3	13.9	
				16.8	12.1	
Beef, med. fat	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		16.5	28.7	
				13.5	25.0	
Beef, boiled†	80	2		17.8	6.8	
				22.2	8.6	
Beef, broiled†	115	3		29.6	10.5	
				25.7	9.9	
Beef, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.2	10.5	
				20.2	9.1	
Hog	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		16.7	27.4	
				14.5	23.8	
Veal	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.1	10.1	
				19.2	8.8	
Stewed	60	2 oz.		13.6	5.5	
				22.7	9.1	
Sweet potatoes	150	1, 6" x $1\frac{3}{4}$ "	39.2	2.7	1.1	
			*26.1	1.8	0.7	
Sweet potatoes, baked	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ lg.	32.2	2.1	0.8	
			32.2	2.1	0.8	
Sweet potatoes, boiled	100	1 med.	20.1	1.1	0.5	
			*20.1	1.1	0.5	
Sweet potatoes, canned	75	2 sm.	31.1	1.4	0.3	
			41.4	1.9	0.4	
Sweetpotato tops	100		6.3	2.3	0.3	
			6.3	2.3	0.3	
wift's meats for babies, see Spages 706, 709.						
Swiss chard, leaves only	100	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.8	2.6	0.4	
			4.8	2.6	0.4	
Swiss chard, leaves and stalks	100	1 c.	4.4	1.4	0.2	
			4.4	1.4	0.2	
Swiss chard, stalks only	125	1 c.	3.6	1.3	0.1	
			2.9	1.0	0.1	
Swiss chard, cooked	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	3.0	2.4	0.2	
			3.0	2.4	0.2	
Swiss cheese	30	2 cu. in.	0.4	8.3	10.4	
			*1.3	27.6	34.9	

¹ Generally thyroid gland.

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			S
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
cheese, Kraft	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ in. 5# loaf		7.9	7.8	105
fish cheese	30	2 cu. in.	1.8	6.9	10.9	135
Swiss cheese	30	2" x 1" x 1"	*6.1	23.2	36.4	125
fresh	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	*4.4	24.9	32.3	240
				43.0	7.1	
				18.7	3.1	
cane	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	118.7	0.4	—	490
	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*74.2	0.2	—	470
golden	20	1 T.	115.2	0	0	65
Blue Label	20	1 T.	*72.0	0	0	60
Green Label	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.8	—	—	490
Green Label	20	1 T.	*79.0	0.3	—	60
Red Label	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.8	0	0	490
thin	18	1 T.	*74.0	0	0	50
	18	1 T.	120.0	0	0	50
am	20	1 T.	*75.0	0	0	50
	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.0	0	0	430
cane	160	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*75.0	0	0	450
			100.8	3.8	—	
			*63.0	2.4	—	
			110.6	0.8	—	
			*69.1	0.4	—	

T

Sauce			0	0	0	0
es, Mandarin orange	100	2, 2" diam.	0	0	0	35
nd, Florida	5	1 lg.	8.0	0.9	—	20
juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	*8.0	0.9	—	50
ne juice	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.8	0.8	—	50
	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	9.0	0.7	—	145
, Minute	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	10.0	1.1	0.4	145
pudding	100		9.2	0.9	0.3	135
aves and stems	100		35.2	0.2	Trace	40
oots	100		88.0	0.4	0.1	14
ber	150	1 med.	35.2	0.2	Trace	150
eamed	100		88.0	0.4	0.1	115
ack leaves	2.3	1 ball ¹	20.8	3.2	3.8	1
usion	140	1 teacup	*20.8	3.2	3.8	—
			5.8	2.7	0.7	—
			*5.8	2.7	0.7	—
			2.2	0.9	0.1	—
			2.2	0.9	0.1	—
			33.6	2.7	0.3	—
			*22.4	1.8	0.2	—
			26.4	1.2	0.2	—
			*26.4	1.2	0.2	—
			—	0.4	—	—
			*1.7	16.0	Trace	—
			Trace	0.1	Trace	—

nts of 1 standard tea ball, 2.3 grams.

T	Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of		
		Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
	Terrapin	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		24.4	4.0
					21.2	3.5
	Thousand Island dressing, com.	15	1 T.	2.6	0.1	5.9
				17.3	0.8	39.0
Toasts:						
	Graham bread	20	1 sl.	13.0	2.2	0.5
				65.0	11.0	2.5
	Melba, white bread	20	2 sl., 4" sq.	15.8	2.8	0.4
				79.0	14.0	1.8
	Rye bread	18	1 sl.	13.3	2.3	0.2
				73.9	12.8	1.1
	White bread	15	1 sl.	10.7	1.9	0.3
				71.1	13.3	2.2
	Toffee, home-made	10	1 sq.	8.8	—	0.6
				*87.8	0.2	6.2
Tomatoes:						
	Fresh, ripe	125	1 small	4.1	1.1	0.5
				*3.3	0.9	0.4
	Fried	100		3.3	1.0	5.9
				*3.3	1.0	5.9
	Green or unripe	125	1, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	4.1	1.5	0.3
				3.3	1.2	0.2
	Cooked	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.2	1.3	0.3
				4.0	1.0	0.2
	Canned	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.5	1.6	0.3
				*3.5	1.2	0.2
	Dried	100		62.3	12.9	8.1
				62.3	12.9	8.1
Tomato:						
	Bouillon, canned	240	1 c.	1.0	2.6	0.7
				0.4	1.1	0.3
	Catsup	20	1 T.	4.8	0.4	0.2
				24.0	2.0	1.0
	Juice, canned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.3	1.2	0.1
				3.6	1.0	0.1
	Juice cocktail	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.1	1.1	—
				*3.6	0.9	0.1
	Ketchup, com.	20	1 T.	5.0	0.5	0.2
				25.0	2.5	0.8
	Paste, canned	15	1 T.	2.8	0.7	0.2
				18.7	4.7	1.4
	Pomace	100			24.0	4.0
					24.0	4.0
	Sauce, canned	15	1 T.	1.4	0.1	0.1
				9.0	0.4	0.3
	Soup, canned, conc.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.4	2.2	2.0
				8.9	1.6	1.4
	Soup, cream of, canned	240	1 c.	21.6	2.9	5.7
				9.0	1.2	2.4
	Tomcod, whole	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		39.6	0.9
					17.2	0.2
Tongue, fresh:						
	Beef, lean	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.5	20.0	12.7
				0.4	17.4	11.0
	Beef, medium	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.5	18.9	17.3
				0.4	16.4	15.0
	Beef, fat	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.5	17.9	20.7
				0.4	15.7	18.0
	Beef, very fat	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.5	16.6	26.5
				0.4	14.4	23.0
	Calf	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	1.0	21.3	6.1
				0.9	18.5	5.3

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			T Cal.
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
h:						
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.6	16.0	17.6	230
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.5	13.9	15.3	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	2.8	15.8	25.1	310
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	2.4	13.7	21.8	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.6	19.3	17.9	250
.			0.5	16.8	15.6	
ked:						
boiled†	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		25.1	17.6	265
.				21.8	15.3	
boiled†	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		24.1	29.3	370
.				21.0	25.5	
ed	50	3 sl.		9.7	16.6	205
.				19.5	23.2	
led	60	2 oz.		7.7	12.3	145
.				12.8	20.5	
ed	60	2 oz.	1.4	11.5	14.3	185
.			*2.3	19.1	23.9	
deviled	6	1 t.	—	1.1	1.4	18
.			0.7	18.6	23.0	
ewed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		20.7	27.6	340
.				18.0	24.0	
ese	25	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " x 1" x $\frac{3}{4}$ "		5.3	6.3	80
.				21.2	25.2	
ack	25	1 T.	16.8	0.3	0	10
.			*67.2	1.2	0	
ed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		20.7	3.4	115
.				18.0	3.0	
canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		19.3	9.8	170
.				16.8	8.5	
led	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.2	13.5	1.4	70
.			0.2	11.7	1.2	
N. B. C.	10	2	8.2	1.1	0.2	40
.			81.7	10.5	1.6	
ok	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		44.2	4.8	235
.				19.2	2.1	
ok, cooked	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	1.3	24.3	2.7	130
.			1.2	21.2	2.4	
mon or lake	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		40.9	23.7	490
.				17.8	10.3	
amed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		25.6	5.2	155
.				22.3	4.5	
, steamed	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		24.3	5.5	150
.				21.1	4.8	
.	100		—	—	0.6	5
.			6.0	6.1	0.6	
lack	100		—	—	0.5	5
.			7.6	8.7	0.5	
hite	100		—	—	0.6	5
.			7.9	8.9	0.6	
ny fish)	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		75.2	26.2	550
.				26.6	11.4	
l	90	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		22.9	17.6	260
.				25.4	19.6	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		34.0	33.1	445
.				14.8	14.4	
eammed	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		23.8	1.8	115
.				20.7	1.6	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		48.5	52.7	690
.				21.1	22.9	
zard	100		1.3	20.5	10.6	190
.			1.3	20.5	10.6	
art	30	1 oz.	0.1	4.9	3.8	55
.			0.2	16.2	12.7	

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Cal.
†Turkey, breast, roasted . . .	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		36.5	2.8
				31.8	2.1
†Turkey, thigh and leg, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		31.3	8.5
				27.3	7.4
Turkey egg, see Eggs.					
Turnip cabbage (kohlrabi) . . .	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.2	2.0	0.1
			*4.2	2.0	0.1
Turnip salad greens	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.2	2.1	0.3
			6.3	4.2	0.8
Turnip tops	100	1 c.	5.4	2.9	0.4
			5.4	2.9	0.4
Turnip tops, boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1	2.7	—
			*0.1	2.7	—
Turnips, white	120	$\frac{3}{4}$ c. diced	8.2	1.6	0.2
			*6.8	1.3	0.2
Turnips, yellow	120	$\frac{3}{4}$ c. diced	7.3	1.6	0.2
			*6.1	1.3	0.2
Turnips, yellow, boiled	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.5	1.1	0.1
			*4.4	0.9	0.1
Turnip-rooted celery (celeriac)	90	1 med.	7.9	1.3	0.3
			8.8	1.7	0.3
Turnip-rooted parsley, roots . .	100		9.2	2.1	0.2
			9.2	2.1	0.2
Turtle, green	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		22.7	0.6
				19.8	0.5
Turtle, green, canned	75	$\frac{1}{8}$ lb.		17.5	0.5
				23.4	0.7
Turtle egg, see Eggs.					
Turtle soup, canned	240	1 c.	8.2	2.6	1.0
			3.4	1.1	0.4

U

Udo, shoots	100		2.4	1.0	0.2
			*2.4	1.0	0.2

V

Vanilla extract, Burnett	5	1 t.	0.4	0	0
			7.0	0	0
Veal, fresh:					
Brains	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.8	20.7
				10.6	9.0
Breast, very lean	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		53.1	5.8
				23.1	2.5
Breast, lean	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		48.8	18.4
				21.2	8.0
Breast, all analyses	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		46.7	25.3
				20.3	11.0
Chops, med. fat	100	1 chop, $\frac{1}{4}$ " thick		19.9	10.8
				19.9	10.8
Chuck, lean	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		47.4	4.4
				20.6	1.9
Chuck, all analyses	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		45.3	13.3
				19.7	5.8
Cutlet	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		46.7	17.7
				20.3	7.7
Flank	230	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		46.2	29.2
				20.1	12.7

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

† Gross fat removed.
Negligible quantity is designated by —.

OF NUTRITIVE AND CALORIC VALUES OF FOODS (599)

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
er	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.0	18.4	360
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		20.0	8.0	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		19.3	11.0	180
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.2	16.8	9.6	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.2	19.3	6.0	135
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		16.8	5.2	
analyses	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		49.0	9.4	290
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		21.3	4.1	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.6	15.4	340
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.7	6.7	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.7	12.2	295
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.0	5.3	
analyses	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.9	12.9	310
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.4	5.6	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		45.8	23.0	400
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.9	10.0	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.7	5.8	135
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		17.1	5.0	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	3.5	40.9	36.7	510
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	1.5	17.8	16.0	
lium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.7	15.9	340
analyses	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.3	6.9	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.6	14.0	325
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.7	6.1	
fore	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.5	21.6	390
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.2	9.4	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		45.5	37.2	535
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		19.8	16.2	
hind, medium fat	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.6	12.0	305
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.7	5.2	
er, lean	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.6	10.6	295
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.7	4.6	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.6	10.6	295
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.7	4.6	
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.5	18.6	365
.	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		20.2	8.1	
ed:						
boiled	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		13.8	6.7	120
.	80	1 av.		12.0	5.8	
.	80	1 av.		22.7	2.7	120
.	80	1 av.		28.4	3.4	
.	80	1 av.	3.5	24.3	6.5	175
.	80	1 av.	*4.4	30.4	8.1	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		23.2	9.6	180
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		29.0	12.0	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		33.4	0.8	145
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		29.1	0.7	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		27.6	9.8	205
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		24.0	8.5	
.	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		37.0	13.1	275
.	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.		32.2	11.4	
.	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	1.4	0.5	0.1	10
.	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	*1.4	0.5	0.1	
.	100	2, 6" long	0.2	0.1	—	1
.	100	2, 6" long	*0.2	0.1	Trace	
.	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.5	3.5	1.0	85
.	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.5	3.5	1.0	
.	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	7.2	0.9	Trace	35
.	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	9.0	1.2	0.1	
pear, see Chayote.						
soup, canned, conc.	140	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.		17.4	5.2	110
.	250	1 c.		12.4	3.7	
.	250	1 c.		15.0	3.8	90
.	250	1 c.		6.0	1.5	

Food items	Size of portion.		Value of portion		
	Grams	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat
Vegetable soup, see also Soups, canned.					
Vegetables, mixed, canned	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	1.1	—
			*3.1	1.4	—
Vegez (Marmite)	4	1 t.	0	1.3	0.2
			0	32.6	0.2
Velvee'a, Kraft	30	3, $\frac{3}{16}$ " sl. $\frac{1}{4}$ "	1.8	5.4	7.5
			*6.0	18.0	25.9
Vendôme cheese	30	2 T.		8.4	6.3
				23.0	29.9
Venison, fresh:					
Forequarter	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		50.1	21.6
				21.8	9.3
Hindquarter	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		44.6	44.2
				19.4	19.3
Lean meat only	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		46.0	13.8
				20.0	6.0
Side	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		47.2	32.1
				20.5	14.4
Venison, roasted	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.		38.5	7.4
				33.5	6.4
Vermicelli, uncooked	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	43.2	6.5	1.2
			72.0	10.9	2.0
Vinegars:					
Cider	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.8	0	0
Malt	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.5	0	0
Spiced, salad	5	1 t.	0.5	0	0
			10.0	0	0
Tarragon	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.2	0	0
Wine	5	1 t.	Trace	0	0
			0.4	0	0
Vinespinach	75	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.8	1.5	0.2
			*2.4	2.0	0.3

W

Walnuts, black	35	6 (whole)	3.5	9.7	19.7
			*10.0	27.6	56.3
Walnuts, California or English	35	6 (whole)	1.8	4.4	18.0
			*5.0	12.5	51.5
Walnuts, soft-shell	35	6 (whole)	4.7	5.8	22.2
			13.5	16.6	63.4
Water chestnuts	100	10, $1\frac{1}{4}$ " diam.	15.6	1.5	0.1
			*15.6	1.5	0.1
Water crackers	18	2	12.9	1.9	1.6
			71.9	10.7	8.8
Water ices, com.	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	39.5	0.6	0
			33.0	0.5	0
Water oats (wild rice)	20	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	13.1	2.8	0.2
			65.4	14.0	0.9
Water rolls	40	1	21.7	3.6	1.2
			54.2	9.0	3.0
Watercress	20	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	0.1	0.6	—
			*0.7	2.9	—
Watermelon	240	1 c. diced	18.0	0.9	0.4
			6.7	0.4	0.2
Waternut, tubers	100		16.5	1.5	0.1
			*16.5	1.5	0.1

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat

Negligible quantity is designated

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			W
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	
Canned	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	11.0	3.5	0.2	60
			14.6	4.7	0.3	
	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.2	1.3	0.1	20
			*2.5	1.0	0.1	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		40.9	5.5	220
	50		10.3	17.8	2.4	
			*20.7	7.6	17.7	250
				15.2	35.5	
	10	1 T.		—	10.0	95
				Trace	99.7	
see Cereals.						
Flour	9	1 heaping t	4.3	2.4	1.0	35
			48.1	27.2	11.2	
see Flours.						
Wheat, ground	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	56.6	8.3	1.3	280
			75.5	11.1	1.7	
	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.7	3.2	0.8	110
			72.7	10.8	2.5	
Sperry	30	3 T.	21.7	3.9	0.8	110
			72.3	13.0	2.7	
	30	1 c.	23.5	3.3	0.5	110
			78.3	11.0	1.7	
Cereal, N. B. C.	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.2	4.2	0.6	110
			70.8	14.0	2.0	
Baked	60	2 oz.	—	10.7	1.1	55
			Trace	17.8	1.9	
	225	1 c.	11.4	2.3	0.7	65
			5.0	1.0	0.3	
cream, see 32%						
664.						
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		52.7	15.0	355
				22.9	6.5	
Fried, av.	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	7.4	21.2	13.7	245
			6.4	19.3	11.9	
Steamed, av.	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0	25.8	1.6	115
			0	22.4	1.4	
	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		43.7	2.3	200
				19.0	1.0	
Fried	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	8.0	19.9	11.8	225
			*7.0	17.3	10.3	
Steamed	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.		22.9	1.0	105
				19.9	0.9	
Berries	100		10.3	0.7	0.3	75
			*10.3	0.7	3.0	
Potatoes	120	2, 7" x $\frac{1}{2}$ "	1.3	23.5	22.3	310
			1.1	19.6	18.6	
Cheese	20	1 cu. in.	0.5	6.8	3.9	65
			*2.3	34.2	19.3	
Vanilla extract, Burnett,						
	5	1 t.	0	0	0	0
			0	0	0	
Boiled	30	1 oz.	—	5.3	0.8	30
			Trace	17.6	2.6	
Mustard (French en-						
	45	1 sm. crown	1.3	0.7	0.1	9
			2.9	1.6	0.3	
Dip sauce, Lea &						
	5	1 t.	1.0	Trace	—	4
			19.0	1.1	Trace	

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.	Pro.	Fat
Y					
Yams, tubers, fresh	125	1, 5½" x 1½"	23.6	2.6	0.2
			*18.7	2.1	—
Yautia (taniars, taye, cocoas) .	100	1 tuber	25.5	2.2	0.2
			*25.5	2.2	—
Yeast, ale, dried	10	2 t.	4.8	3.9	0.1
			48.4	38.9	1.1
Yeast, brewer's, Mead . . .	11	2 t.	4.3	4.2	0.2
			39.0	48.0	2.8
Yeast, compressed, baker's .	12	1½" sq.	2.5	1.4	—
			21.0	11.7	0.4
Yeast, Fleischmann	15	1 cake	1.2	2.1	0.1
			*8.2	14.1	0.5
Yoghurt ¹	100	1 wine glass	9.4	7.4	7.2
			9.4	7.4	7.2
Yoghurt cheese, American .	30	2 T.		5.2	9.0
				17.5	40.2
York cream cheese	25	2" x 1½" x 1"		4.5	1.6
				17.9	6.5
Yorkshire pudding	50	1 sq.	13.4	3.6	4.7
			*26.8	7.2	9.4

Z

Zucchini	75	2½" x 2"	1.6	1.8	—
			2.1	2.4	—
Zwieback	5	1, 3" x 1½"	3.7	0.5	0.5
			73.5	9.8	9.9
Zwieback, Sunshine	7	1 piece	5.2	0.7	0.8
			77.3	9.8	12.1
Zwieback toast, N. B. C. . .	7	1 piece	5.5	0.7	0.4
			79.1	10.6	6.2

¹ Alcohol, 0.2 per cent.

* Largely assimilable.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

‡ Gross fat re

Negligible quantity is designated

SPECIAL DIETETIC AND COMMERCIAL FOODS

The table under this heading which appeared in previous editions has been deleted in view of the fact that it is now common for the manufacturers and distributors of special food products to state the analysis on the label. The number of such products has shown marked increase in recent years and the trend is not likely to diminish. Changes also are frequently introduced into these preparations to keep them abreast of advancing nutritional knowledge. Any table of practical size would of necessity be very incomplete and decidedly out-of-date from the time of its printing. Where physicians or nutritionists wish to make comparisons of different brands or proprietary products they should have no difficulty in assembling information on such preparations as are available locally.

STRAINED FOODS.

face numerals indicate the number of grams and the an average portion. The plain numerals indicate the composition thereof. *Italicized* letters indicate trade

TABLE 52.—Strained Foods.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Household Grams.	measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
d apricot	28.4	1 oz.	4.9	0.1	0.1	22
uce	28.4	1 oz.	17.5	0.3	0.5	14
reen	28.4	1 oz.	3.4	—	—	5
.	28.4	1 oz.	11.8	0.2	0.2	8
.	28.4	1 oz.	0.8	0.3	—	8
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.9	1.1	0.1	12
.	28.4	1 oz.	1.5	0.3	—	28
.	28.4	1 oz.	5.5	1.2	—	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	1.7	0.1	—	17
.	28.4	1 oz.	5.9	0.4	0.2	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	1.5	0.5	0.4	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	5.5	1.9	1.4	26
.	28.4	1 oz.	4.9	0.7	0.6	34
.	28.4	1 oz.	17.4	2.4	2.1	6
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.0	0.9	0.3	24
.	28.4	1 oz.	7.0	3.2	1.0	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	4.0	0.2	—	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	13.9	0.7	0.2	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	3.3	0.1	0.1	26
.	28.4	1 oz.	11.6	0.3	0.4	34
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	1.0	0.1	6
.	28.4	1 oz.	8.3	3.5	0.3	24
.	28.4	1 oz.	5.3	0.5	0.3	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	19.1	1.7	0.9	25
.	28.4	1 oz.	8.2	—	—	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	28.9	0.1	0.2	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	0.6	0.6	0.1	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	2.0	0.4	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	4.1	0.8	0.4	11
.	28.4	1 oz.	14.6	2.9	1.5	25
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.6	0.3	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	8.1	2.3	1.2	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.5	0.3	11
.	28.4	1 oz.	8.2	1.7	1.1	25
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.4	—	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	8.1	1.3	—	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	3.0	0.5	1.2	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	10.7	1.7	4.1	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	1.1	0.3	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	7.6	3.9	0.9	17
.	28.4	1 oz.	1.8	0.7	0.4	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	6.4	2.6	1.5	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.0	0.9	0.6	15
.	28.4	1 oz.	7.2	3.1	2.1	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.1	1.0	0.3	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	7.5	3.4	0.9	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	2.6	0.6	0.1	14
.	28.4	1 oz.	9.3	2.0	0.5	

values exclude crude fiber.
 space indicated lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.
 (703)

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fat.
<i>Clapp:</i>					
Apple sauce	28.4	1 oz.	4.6	0.4	—
			16.2	1.5	0.1
Apricots and apples with farina	28.4	1 oz.	4.4	0.2	—
			15.5	0.8	0.1
Beans, green	28.4	1 oz.	0.5	0.8	—
			1.9	2.8	0.1
Carrots	28.4	1 oz.	0.3	0.8	—
			1.0	2.7	—
Chicken soup	28.4	1 oz.	1.9	1.0	0.4
			6.8	3.7	1.5
Custard pudding	28.4	1 oz.	3.5	1.8	0.4
			12.3	6.3	1.6
Liver soup	28.4	1 oz.	1.6	1.5	0.2
			5.6	5.3	0.7
Peaches	28.4	1 oz.	3.1	0.5	—
			10.8	1.9	—
Pears	28.4	1 oz.	2.9	0.5	—
			10.1	1.7	0.1
Peas	28.4	1 oz.	0.8	1.7	0.1
			3.0	5.9	0.3
Pineapple pudding	28.4	1 oz.	3.8	0.6	0.4
			13.5	2.2	1.5
Prunes	28.4	1 oz.	5.4	0.7	—
			19.2	2.5	—
Squash	28.4	1 oz.	1.0	0.6	0.1
			3.4	2.3	0.3
Vegetable soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.1	0.7	—
			7.4	2.4	Trace
Vegetables, creamed	28.4	1 oz.	2.6	0.7	0.4
			9.3	2.4	1.3
Vegetables, mixed	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.6	—
			8.4	2.0	0.1
Vegetables with bacon	28.4	1 oz.	2.1	0.4	0.6
			7.4	1.6	2.2
Vegetables with beef	28.4	1 oz.	1.9	1.1	0.2
			6.7	4.0	0.6
Vegetables with lamb	28.4	1 oz.	1.7	1.1	0.3
			6.2	3.8	1.0
<i>Gerber:</i>					
Apple sauce	28.4	1 oz.	4.3	—	—
			15.3	0.2	0.2
Apricots with farina	28.4	1 oz.	5.6	0.2	—
			20.0	0.7	0.2
Beans, green	28.4	1 oz.	1.5	0.4	—
			5.2	1.4	0.1
Beets	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	0.4	—
			7.7	1.3	0.1
Carrots	28.4	1 oz.	1.6	0.2	—
			5.7	0.6	0.1
Chocolate custard	28.4	1 oz.	4.1	1.0	1.1
			14.7	3.5	3.9
Custard pudding	28.4	1 oz.	4.0	1.0	1.0
			14.3	3.4	3.7
Liver soup	28.4	1 oz.	1.8	1.1	0.2
			6.5	3.8	0.7
Peaches	28.4	1 oz.	3.5	0.2	0.3
			12.4	0.5	0.9
Pear pineapple	28.4	1 oz.	3.4	0.1	—
			12.0	0.3	0.1
Pears	28.4	1 oz.	3.4	0.1	—
			12.2	0.4	0.2
Peas	28.4	1 oz.	2.1	1.0	0.1
			7.4	3.5	0.4

* All values exclude crude fiber.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by

Food items. (cont.)	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
	28.4	1 oz.	6.3	0.2	0.1	28
			22.6	0.8	0.3	
	28.4	1 oz.	0.6	0.5	0.1	6
			2.2	1.8	0.4	
	28.4	1 oz.	1.9	0.2	—	9
			6.6	0.6	0.2	
ble and lamb	28.4	1 oz.	1.9	0.6	0.4	13
			6.6	2.1	1.5	
ble soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.0	0.6	0.4	14
			6.9	2.2	1.5	
ables, mixed	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.4	—	11
			8.0	1.5	0.1	
<i>Meats:</i>						
ed beef	28.4	1 oz.		4.9	1.1	29
				17.1	3.8	
ed liver	28.4	1 oz.		4.6	1.0	29
				16.2	3.6	
ed veal	28.4	1 oz.		4.4	0.7	24
				15.5	2.5	
e prune pudding	28.4	1 oz.	6.8	0.4	0.4	33
			24.5	1.5	1.3	
e sauce	28.4	1 oz.	3.6	—	—	15
			12.7	0.2	0.1	
cots and apple sauce	28.4	1 oz.	4.0	0.2	—	17
			14.4	0.6	0.1	
cots and oatmeal	28.4	1 oz.	6.5	0.3	0.1	28
			23.2	0.9	0.3	
as, green	28.4	1 oz.	1.1	0.6	—	7
			3.8	2.2	0.2	
and liver soup	28.4	1 oz.	1.8	1.2	0.6	18
			6.5	4.4	2.3	
broth with beef and arley	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.7	0.4	16
			8.3	2.5	1.6	
ts	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.4	—	12
			8.5	1.5	0.1	
rots	28.4	1 oz.	1.6	0.3	—	8
			5.7	1.0	0.2	
real for infants, recooked, dry	28.4	1 oz.	20.5	4.3	0.6	104
			72.1	15.1	2.2	
stard pudding	28.4	1 oz.	5.8	0.7	0.4	30
			20.6	2.6	1.5	
ange pudding	28.4	1 oz.	6.1	0.5	—	27
			21.8	1.7	0.2	
aches	28.4	1 oz.	5.7	0.1	—	24
			20.5	0.4	0.2	
ars and pineapple	28.4	1 oz.	3.8	0.1	—	16
			13.7	0.4	0.1	
ars with farina	28.4	1 oz.	6.2	0.2	—	26
			22.0	0.6	0.1	
as	28.4	1 oz.	2.5	1.4	0.2	17
			8.8	4.9	0.5	
unes	28.4	1 oz.	9.0	0.3	—	34
			28.2	1.1	0.2	
inach	28.4	1 oz.	0.4	0.6	0.1	5
			1.5	2.2	0.5	
omato juice	28.4	1 oz.	1.2	0.3	—	6
			4.4	1.0	0.1	
omato soup	28.4	1 oz.	3.1	0.6	—	16
			11.2	2.3	0.1	
vegetable soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.5	0.5	—	12
			8.7	1.8	0.1	
vegetables and lamb	28.4	1 oz.	1.9	0.6	0.4	13
			6.8	2.0	1.3	

Food items. <i>Libby "Homogenized":</i>	Size of portion.		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fib.
Apple sauce	28.4	1 oz.	6.1	—	—
			21.4	0.2	0.2
Apples and apricots	28.4	1 oz.	4.6	0.1	—
			16.4	0.4	0.1
Apples and prunes	28.4	1 oz.	6.0	0.1	—
			21.3	0.4	0.4
Apricot-farina	28.4	1 oz.	5.3	0.3	—
			18.8	0.9	Trace
Beans, green	28.4	1 oz.	1.1	0.4	—
			3.9	1.4	Trace
Beets	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.4	—
			8.4	1.5	—
Carrots	28.4	1 oz.	2.0	0.2	—
			7.2	0.7	Trace
Custard pudding	28.4	1 oz.	6.6	1.0	1.0
			23.4	3.7	3.4
Fruits, mixed (apricots, peaches, pears)	28.4	1 oz.	4.8	0.2	—
			17.1	0.5	0.2
Liver soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	1.1	—
			7.8	3.9	0.2
Peaches	28.4	1 oz.	4.2	0.2	—
			15.0	0.6	0.1
Pears and pineapple	28.4	1 oz.	4.1	0.1	—
			14.7	0.4	0.1
Peas	28.4	1 oz.	1.9	0.8	—
			6.7	2.9	0.2
Prunes with pineapple and lemon juices	28.4	1 oz.	7.4	0.3	—
			26.4	1.1	0.2
Spinach	28.4	1 oz.	0.5	0.5	0.2
			1.7	1.7	0.5
Squash	28.4	1 oz.	1.8	0.2	—
			6.3	0.8	Trace
Vegetable soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.6	1.2	—
			9.3	4.1	Trace
Vegetables, garden (carrots, peas, spinach)	28.4	1 oz.	1.7	0.5	—
			5.9	1.8	Trace
Vegetables, mixed (green beans, pumpkin, tomato)	28.4	1 oz.	1.2	0.3	—
			4.3	1.0	Trace
Vegetables with bacon	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.4	0.9
			8.5	1.6	3.2
Vegetables with beef	28.4	1 oz.	1.7	1.2	—
			6.1	4.1	Trace
Vegetables with lamb	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	1.0	0.8
			7.6	3.7	2.8
<i>Swift's Meats:</i>					
Strained beef	28.4	1 oz.	5.0	0.8	—
			17.7	3.0	—
Strained heart	28.4	1 oz.	3.8	0.7	—
			13.4	2.5	—
Strained lamb	28.4	1 oz.	4.4	1.3	—
			15.6	4.5	—
Strained liver	28.4	1 oz.	4.5	1.2	—
			15.9	4.3	—
Strained pork	28.4	1 oz.	4.7	1.6	—
			16.7	5.6	—
Strained veal	28.4	1 oz.	4.6	0.3	—
			16.4	1.0	—

* All values exclude crude fiber.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

CHOPPED OR JUNIOR FOODS

boldface numerals indicate the number of grams and the cal-
an average portion. The plain numerals indicate the per-
composition thereof. *Italicized* letters indicate trade names.

TABLE 53.—Chopped or Junior Foods.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
at:						
s, green	28.4	1 oz.	1.3	0.4	—	7
			4.7	1.3	0.1	
	28.4	1 oz.	1.6	0.4	—	8
			5.6	1.4	—	
ots	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	0.2	—	10
			7.8	0.8	0.1	
ken soup	28.4	1 oz.	1.5	0.9	0.5	14
			5.5	3.2	1.7	
apple rice pudding	28.4	1 oz.	5.6	0.5	0.3	27
			19.9	1.8	1.1	
nes	28.4	1 oz.	8.0	0.3	—	33
			28.0	1.0	0.1	
sin-rice pudding	28.4	1 oz.	7.2	0.7	0.4	35
			25.3	2.4	1.5	
nach	28.4	1 oz.	0.7	0.6	0.1	6
			2.4	2.1	0.4	
etable and beef	28.4	1 oz.	2.5	1.0	0.2	16
			8.8	3.4	0.8	
etable and lamb	28.4	1 oz.	2.6	0.6	0.3	16
			9.3	2.3	1.1	
etable soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.6	0.3	—	12
			9.4	1.2	0.1	
etables with bacon	28.4	1 oz.	2.8	0.4	1.0	22
			9.9	1.5	3.5	
o:						
ple sauce	28.4	1 oz.	3.8	0.4	—	17
			13.5	1.6	0.1	
ricots with farina	28.4	1 oz.	2.8	0.7	—	14
			9.9	2.4	Trace	
by cereal	28.4	1 oz.	21.7	3.4	0.1	102
			76.4	12.0	0.5	
by oatmeal	28.4	1 oz.	21.2	4.0	0.3	103
			74.6	14.2	1.2	
arrots	28.4	1 oz.	0.4	1.0	—	6
			1.3	3.5	0.1	
icken soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.5	—	12
			8.3	1.9	0.1	
ocolate pudding	28.4	1 oz.	3.6	0.8	0.2	20
			13.0	3.0	0.6	
sh chowder	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	0.5	—	11
			7.6	1.8	0.2	
eaches	28.4	1 oz.	3.0	0.6	0.1	15
			10.7	2.0	0.3	
ears	28.4	1 oz.	3.0	0.5	—	15
			10.7	1.8	0.2	
neapple pudding	28.4	1 oz.	3.0	1.0	0.4	20
			10.7	3.5	1.5	

l values exclude crude fiber.
k space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by —.
(707)

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of		
	Grams.	Household measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fat
<i>Clapp: (cont.)</i>					
Prunes	28.4	1 oz.	5.5	0.8	—
			19.5	2.7	0.1
Spinach	28.4	1 oz.	—	0.8	0.1
			0.1	2.9	0.2
Vegetable soup	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.3	—
			8.1	1.2	Trace
Vegetables, creamed	28.4	1 oz.	1.8	0.8	0.4
			6.5	2.7	1.3
Vegetables with bacon	28.4	1 oz.	2.6	0.4	0.5
			9.3	1.6	1.9
Vegetables with beef	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.8	0.3
			8.0	3.0	0.9
Vegetables with lamb	28.4	1 oz.	2.4	0.6	0.1
			8.4	2.2	0.4
Vegetables with liver	28.4	1 oz.	1.8	0.8	—
			6.5	2.8	Trace
<i>Gerber:</i>					
Apple prune pudding	28.4	1 oz.	6.6	0.4	0.1
			23.1	1.3	0.5
Beans, green	28.4	1 oz.	1.2	0.4	—
			4.2	1.3	0.1
Carrots	28.4	1 oz.	1.6	0.2	—
			5.6	0.6	0.2
Peaches	28.4	1 oz.	4.5	0.1	—
			16.2	0.5	0.1
Pineapple-rice pudding	28.4	1 oz.	6.6	0.5	0.1
			23.1	1.7	0.5
Spinach	28.4	1 oz.	0.7	0.6	0.1
			2.5	2.1	0.4
Vegetables and beef	28.4	1 oz.	2.1	0.7	0.3
			7.4	2.4	1.1
Vegetables and lamb	28.4	1 oz.	2.3	0.6	0.4
			7.9	2.0	1.4
Vegetables and liver	28.4	1 oz.	2.0	0.6	0.1
			7.3	2.1	0.3
<i>Gerber's Meats:</i>					
Chopped beef	28.4	1 oz.		6.8	0.7
				23.8	2.5
Chopped liver	28.4	1 oz.		6.9	1.4
				24.2	5.1
Chopped veal	28.4	1 oz.		6.6	0.5
				23.2	1.7
<i>Heinz:</i>					
Apple, fig and date dessert	28.4	1 oz.	6.1	0.2	0.2
			21.8	0.6	0.5
Chicken farina vegetable porridge	28.4	1 oz.	2.0	0.8	0.2
			7.1	2.9	0.6
Chopped carrots	28.4	1 oz.	1.2	0.3	—
			4.4	0.9	0.1
Chopped green beans	28.4	1 oz.	1.3	0.4	—
			4.5	1.3	0.2
Chopped mixed vegetables	28.4	1 oz.	2.2	0.2	—
			7.7	0.8	0.1
Chopped spinach	28.4	1 oz.	0.5	0.5	—
			1.7	1.8	0.2
Creamed diced vegetables	28.4	1 oz.	2.5	0.6	0.3
			8.8	2.1	1.2
Creamed tomato and rice	28.4	1 oz.	6.0	0.6	0.6
			11.4	2.1	2.2

* All values exclude crude fiber.

Blank space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items. (cont.)	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Household Grams.	measure.	Carb.*	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
le rice pudding	28.4	1 oz.	7.8	0.5	—	34
pudding	28.4	1 oz.	27.5	1.7	0.2	
			7.2	0.6	0.3	33
			25.2	2.0	0.9	
les with lamb and						
	28.4	1 oz.	2.5	0.9	0.4	18
			8.8	3.1	1.6	
Meats:						
beef	28.4	1 oz.		6.5	1.1	37
				23.1	4.1	
heart	28.4	1 oz.		4.8	1.4	33
				17.3	5.1	
lamb	28.4	1 oz.		5.1	1.8	37
				18.2	6.3	
liver	28.4	1 oz.		5.3	1.5	35
				18.7	5.2	
pork	28.4	1 oz.		6.2	2.0	43
				22.1	7.1	
veal	28.4	1 oz.		5.7	0.6	28
				20.4	2.1	

TABLE 54.—Pre-cooked Baby Cereals.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.			
	Household Grams.	measure.	Carb.†	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
y cereal	28.4	1 oz.	21.7	3.4	0.1	102
			76.4	12.0	0.5	
y oatmeal	28.4	1 oz.	21.2	4.0	0.3	103
			74.6	14.2	1.2	
ey cereal	28.4	1 oz.	19.6	3.7	1.4	108
			69.2	13.2	4.9	
al food	28.4	1 oz.	20.4	4.1	1.0	110
			71.9	14.6	3.4	
ined oatmeal	28.4	1 oz.	18.6	4.2	2.0	112
			65.6	14.7	7.3	
al for infants	28.4	1 oz.	20.5	4.3	0.6	104
			72.1	15.1	2.2	
neal	28.4	1 oz.	18.1	4.8	1.5	108
			63.9	16.8	5.5	

† All values exclude crude fiber.

† Exclusive of crude fiber which ranges from 1.0 to 1.9 per cent on the products

RECIPED FOODS.†

Reciped foods have not been included in the main table of food nutrients unless subject to rigid commercial control or actually analyzed after "home" preparation. To complete such data the items in Table 55 have been calculated from standard recipes utilizing the analyses of the component parts. The data, when applied to specific instances, must be regarded as merely approximate.

Recipes from two sources have been incorporated in the following table: (1) Certain foods are shown with appended caloric ingredients for which the recipes are common knowledge; (2) all other items follow the recipes given in *The Boston Cooking School Cookbook* by Fannie Merritt Farmer, 1936 revised edition. Little, Brown and Company, Boston.

The calories have been entered in the nearest multiple of 5.

Italicized numbers in parentheses indicate the number of servings per recipe.

TABLE 55.—Nutritive Value of Some Common Foods, Prepared According to Recipe.

Food items.	Size of portion, household measure.	Value of portion.		
		Carb.	Prot.	Fat.
Albumen water	1 c.	—	4.5	Trace
1 egg white				
Albumenized fruit juice	1 c.	4.5	4.5	Trace
¼ c. orange juice added to albumen water				
Beef, creamed chipped on toast (3)	½ c. on 1 sl. toast	21.0	11.0	13.5
½ c. dried beef				
1 c. white sauce II				
Biscuits, baking powder (20)	1 biscuit	11.0	2.0	2.0
Broth	1 c.	0.1	5.0	—
Bouillon	1 c.	0.7	6.2	0.2
Cakes:				
Chocolate (16)	1 piece	26.0	3.0	5.5
2 T. cocoa added to plain cake				
Corn (Johnny cake) (15)	1 piece	19.0	3.0	1.5
¼ c. cornmeal				
1½ c. white flour				
¼ c. sugar				
5 t. baking powder				
1 c. milk				
1 egg				
2 T. butter				

† From the Dietary Department of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital.
Blank space indicates lack of data. Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion, household measure.	Value of portion.			
		Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
bread (20)	1 piece	24.5	2.0	3.0	135
molasses					
white flour					
butter					
(16)	1 piece	26.0	3.0	5.0	165
butter					
sugar					
es					
milk					
white flour					
baking powder					
g:					
ate (16)	2 T.	15.0	0.5	1.5	80
z. chocolate added to					
n icing					
(16)	2 T.	14.5	0.5	—	60
sugar					
eggwhite					
gruel (2)	1 c.	6.5	1.5	1.0	40
cereal					
cream (2)	1 c.	8.0	2.5	6.5	105
light cream added to					
real gruel					
milk (2)	1 c.	9.5	3.5	3.0	80
light milk added to					
real gruel					
water (2)	1 c.	3.3	0.7	0.5	20
T. cereal					
n, creamed	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.0	11.0	16.5	225
ate syrup (8)	2 T.	11.5	1.0	1.0	60
cocoa					
sugar					
all milk	1 c.	17.0	7.0	8.5	180
half milk	1 c.	12.0	4.0	5.0	110
cream	1 c.	17.5	1.0	12.0	210
s, plain (50)	1	10.5	1.0	2.0	65
butter					
sugar					
milk					
gs					
white flour					
baking powder					
d:					
d (8)	1 custard c.	20.5	8.0	8.0	190
(4)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	21.0	6.0	8.5	190
.	1 c.	18.0	12.0	11.5	230
ey					
teaspoons sugar					
l. milk					
et (2)	Individual	1.5	14.5	24.5	295
mbled (3)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.0	0.5	3.5	45

Food items.	Size of portion, household measure	Value of portion			
		Carb	Prot	Fat	Cal
Gelatin, lemon flavor (8)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	30.0	2.0	—	120
Gravy, brown (8)	2 T.	2.0	0.5	3.5	40
Ice, orange (12)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	42.5	0.6	0	172
Junket (2)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	13.5	4.0	5.0	120
1 c. milk					
1 T. sugar					
Lemonade (5)	1 c.	24.5	0	0	100
Macaroni and cheese (5)	1 c.	24.0	9.0	14.0	265
$\frac{3}{4}$ c. uncooked macaroni					
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. grated cheese					
1 T. white flour					
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ T. butter					
3 T. bread crumbs					
Milk:					
Chocolate malted	1 c.	37.5	9.5	8.0	270
2 T. chocolate syrup added to malted milk					
Malted	1 c.	26.0	8.5	7.0	205
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. milk					
3 T. malted milk					
Mousse, vanilla (5)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	10.5	2.0	18.0	220
Muffins:					
Cornmeal (8)	1 large	22.0	4.0	3.0	135
Plain (10)	1	24.0	4.5	3.5	150
Potatoes:					
Creamed (6)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	14.5	4.0	12.0	190
Scalloped (6)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.0	3.0	4.0	110
4 med. potatoes					
1 T. white flour					
1 T. butter					
1 c. milk					
Hashed brown (4)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.5	2.0	10.5	170
Mashed (6)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	27.0	3.5	7.0	190
Prune whip (8)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.0	3.0	Trace	80
Puddings:					
Bread (12)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	33.0	10.5	10.0	270
Butterscotch (6)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	33.0	4.0	5.5	200
Chocolate bread (12)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	36.0	12.5	13.0	320
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. cocoa added to bread pudding					
Chocolate cornstarch (2)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	31.0	6.5	8.0	230
$\frac{1}{2}$ oz. chocolate, or 3 T. cocoa, added to cornstarch pudding					
Cornstarch (2)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	26.5	4.0	5.0	170
Rice (7)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	29.0	5.5	5.5	190

Blank space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by —

Food items.	Size of portion. household measure.	Value of portion.			
		Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
Mustard (4)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	29.0	5.0	6.0	195
Baked rice					
Milk					
Butter					
Sugar					
Raisins					
(6)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	19.5	5.0	5.0	145
(4)	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup on 2 lettuce leaves	1.5	9.5	16.0	195
Raw (2)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.5	1.0	8.5	100
Shredded cabbage cream dressing					
.	1 c.	13.0	0.5	13.0	225
cream dressing with fruit as desired					
.	1 c.	3.0	1.0	20.0	200
Salad greens French dressing					
o (4)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. on 2 lettuce leaves	8.0	3.5	13.5	175
on (3)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. on 2 lettuce leaves	0.5	17.5	23.5	295
salmon					
diced celery					
egg					
lettuce leaves					
T. mayonnaise					
lorf (6)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. on 2 lettuce leaves	5.5	3.5	22.5	245
Dressings:					
m mayonnaise (8)	1 T.	0.2	0.1	9.0	85
e. mayonnaise					
T. whipped cream					
ian (8)	1 T.	1.5	0.3	8.0	85
e. mayonnaise					
T. cream					
T. chili sauce					
, creamed	$\frac{1}{2}$ c. on 1 sl. of toast	22.0	11.0	17.0	295
iches:					
se	1 sandwich	26.0	12.0	22.0	360
l. bread					
. butter					
l. cheese					
ttuce					
. mayonnaise					
.	1 sandwich	26.0	10.5	19.5	330
l. bread					
. butter					
egg					
ttuce					
. mayonnaise					

Food items.	Size of portion, household measure.	Value of food.			
		Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
Sandwiches:					
Marmalade	1 sandwich	47.0	4.0	9.5	27
2 sl. bread					
2 t. butter					
1 t. marmalade					
Meat or fish	1 sandwich	26.0	12.0	15.5	30
2 sl. bread					
2 t. butter					
1 oz. meat or fish					
Lettuce					
1 t. mayonnaise					
Vegetable, 3 per cent	1 sandwich	29.0	4.0	14.0	28
2 sl. bread					
2 t. butter					
3 per cent vegetable					
1 t. mayonnaise					
Sauces:					
Caramel (8)	2 T.	28.5	—	—	115
Chocolate fudge (12)	2 T.	32.0	3.0	6.0	200
Custard	4 T.	10.5	3.0	4.5	100
Hard (8)	2 T.	44.0		8.0	255
Tomato, thin	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	4.0	1.0	3.5	50
Vanilla	2 T.	30.0	—	6.5	180
White I, thin (soup base)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.5	3.0	7.5	100
White II, medium (creamed foods)	2 T.	3.0	1.0	4.5	60
White III, thick (sauces)	2 T.	4.0	1.5	6.0	80
Tomatoes, scalloped (2)	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	9.5	2.0	5.0	90
1 c. tomatoes					
$\frac{1}{2}$ sl. bread					
$\frac{1}{2}$ t. sugar					
2 t. butter					
Toast, milk (6)	1 sl.	19.5	5.0	8.0	170
Vegetables, creamed:					
Creamed 3 per cent vegetable	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.0	1.5	4.5	70
2 T. white sauce II					
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. 3 per cent vegetable					
Creamed 6 per cent vegetable	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	9.0	1.5	4.5	80
2 T. white sauce II					
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. 6 per cent vegetable					
Creamed 9 per cent vegetable	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	12.0	1.5	4.5	100
2 T. white sauce II					
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. 9 per cent vegetable					
Creamed 12 per cent vegetable	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	15.0	1.5	4.5	110
2 T. white sauce II					
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. 12 per cent vegetable					
Creamed 15 per cent vegetable	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	18.0	1.5	4.5	120
2 T. white sauce II					
$\frac{1}{2}$ c. 15 per cent vegetable					

Blank space indicates lack of data.

Negligible quantity is designated by

SPECIFIC ORGANIC COMPONENTS OF FOODS.

action.—Increasing interest is attached to the presence or of specific chemical entities in food. Although the information in hand leaves much to be desired, available data useful, if somewhat limited, information.

Available Carbohydrates.

In the preceding tables an effort has been made to designate available carbohydrates by the use of an asterisk on the per-value. It is recognized that this does not represent true availability in every instance. The complex nature of naturally-occurring carbohydrates renders the problem a difficult one, affected not only by lack of chemical data but by modes of cooking and differences in digestibility. Table 56, therefore, provides desirable information regarding a restricted group of foods.

The analyses shown in Table 56 are from E. M. Widdowson and McCance (*Biochem. Jour.*, 29, 151, 1935). McCance and his co-workers have made outstanding contributions to our knowledge of the chemical composition of foodstuffs. Further analyses on carbohydrates of various classes of foods will be found in Report No. 213 of the Medical Research Council of Great Britain (1936). The total carbohydrate available in stewed fruit (from that which may be added) is as follows: apples 4.4, apricots 18, blackberries 3.2, cherries 4.1,¹ black currants 4.6, raspberries 3.2, damsons 6.6,¹ dried figs 30, gooseberries 1.7, green grapes 7.6,¹ dried peaches 18, pears 6.5, plums 6.1,¹ dried prunes 18, raspberries 3.8, and rhubarb 0.7 grams per 100 grams.

TABLE 56.—Available Carbohydrates in Fruits and Vegetables.

Food items.	Sugar, per cent.	Total available carbohydrate, per cent.	Water content, per cent.
Apples, baked	12.0		
Blackberries	12.6		81.1
Black currants	11.2		85.0
Black currants, eating*		12.2	84.1
Black currants, cooking*		9.6	85.6
Black currants, eating*		11.7	84.5
Black currants	10.4		85.4
Black currants, Washington	12.7		
Black currants, Northern Spy	14.0		
Black currants	9.4		86.5
Black currants	11.2		83.6
Black currants, juice	10.5		87.1
Black currants, American	10.4		85.4

* Weighed with stones.

* Flesh only; no skin.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Sugar per cent.</i>	<i>Total available carbohydrates, per cent.</i>	<i>Water content, per cent.</i>
Apricots, English		6.7	84.9
Asparagus, boiled	0.8		
Asparagus-beans, green pods		7.8	84.9
Avocados, Fuerte	0.6		65.4
Bananas		19.2	74.9
Very green	1.8		
Green	5.8	21.4	
Medium ripe	15.4		
Very ripe	18.2	18.9	
Beans, lima, canned	1.6		
Beans, snap		2.6	88.9
Beans, string, green, raw	3.4		91.4
Beans, string, boiled	1.5		94.6
Beet greens	0.5		90.4
Blackberries	6.1		85.3
Blackberry juice	5.4		92.3
Blueberries	9.7		83.4
Blueberry juice	12.4		85.9
Broccoli	1.9		89.9
Burdock root		7.6	72.4
Cabbage		5.1	92.4
Cabbage, boiled	1.1		96.6
Cabbage, raw	4.9	5.8	91.5
Cabbage, Chinese		1.1	95.2
Cantaloupe		5.3	93.6
Carrots		7.6	88.2
Carrots, boiled	3.7		
Carrots, raw	8.7	9.0	88.2
Cauliflower, boiled once	1.7		93.9
Cauliflower, boiled "thrice"	0.7	0.8	95.0
Cauliflower, raw	1.9	2.9	92.0
Celeriac		0.9	88.3
Celery		1.3	93.7
Celery hearts, raw	1.9		
Celery, outside portion, raw	0.5	0.6	95.2
Celery, outside portion, cooked	0.3	0.4	96.7
Chard, leaves		0.9	91.0
Chard, stalks		1.8	95.2
Cherries, American, sour	9.5		84.4
Cherries, American, sweet	11.6		80.0
Cherries, English, cooking	11.6		79.8
Cherries, English, eating	11.9		81.1
Corn, young		13.9	80.3
Corn, medium		20.1	72.4
Corn, old		24.8	65.3
Cranberries, American	4.2		87.4
Cranberries, English		3.5	87.0
Cucumber	2.6		96.1

Food items.	Sugar, per cent.	Total available carbohydrate, per cent.	Water content, per cent.
s, black		6.6	77.4
s, red		4.4	82.8
s, white		5.6	83.3
juice, black	10.9		89.1
juice, red	6.2		78.8
a plums, American	8.7		77.5
a plums, English		9.6	85.8
on greens		0.9	66.6
ns		23.5	14.6
		63.9	93.3
r sorrel		0.1	78.0
	16.2		84.6
reen		9.5	89.9
berries, green		3.4	83.7
berries, ripe		9.2	90.7
fruit		5.3	88.8
fruit	6.5		89.7
fruit juice	6.8		81.9
s, American	11.5		80.7
ck*		15.5	81.6
ropean	14.9		
laga	22.5		79.3
ite		16.1	
e juice:			79.1
tawba type	17.9		82.1
ncord	15.7		77.3
laware	19.9		77.1
ropean	19.8		86.7
uscadine	12.5		78.2
ngage plums		11.8	80.6
was, common	6.1		79.3
was, strawberry	6.7		86.6
		1.4	90.1
	2.2		84.2
lrahi		1.7	88.2
bsquarters		4.0	85.2
ss		3.2	89.3
on			91.3
on	2.2		
on juice		1.6	
uce, green leaves	0.9		94.8
uce, white leaves	1.7		86.0
es	0.5		89.6
es, sweet	6.0		91.3
ie juice	0.3		82.9
ganberries, American	6.0		85.0
ganberries, English		3.4	88.9
ganberry juice	3.5		

esh only; no skin.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Sugar, per cent.</i>	<i>Total available carbohydrate, per cent.</i>	
Mandarin orange	8.7		87
Mandarin orange juice	7.8		86
Mangos	13.7		81
Melons, yellow, English		5.0	94
Mulberries		8.1	85
Muskmelon	5.4		92
Muskmelon juice	9.1		87
Nectarines	11.8		82
Oca, tubers		14.7	55
Oranges		8.5	85
Oranges, Seville	6.0		91
Orange juice		9.4	87
Orange juice	6.8		92
Onions, average		7.2	87
Onions, boiled	6.1		
Onions, raw	8.3		
Onions, young green		4.2	87
Papaya	9.0		88
Parsley	2.8		87
Parsnips, raw		11.9	78
Peaches, English		9.1	86
Georgia	9.4		85
Maryland	8.6		87
New Jersey	7.6		88
North Carolina	9.2		86
Peach juice	11.8		86
Pears, Bartlett	8.3		83
Empire eating*		10.8	83
English cooking*		10.4	83
English eating*		9.3	83
Winter	11.9		
Peas, green, young		7.2	81
Peas, green, medium		9.0	75
Peas, green, old		14.6	65
Peas, green, boiled	2.8		
Peppers, green		5.9	92
Peppers, red	3.0		89
Persimmons, Japanese	15.9		78
Persimmons, native American	18.9		64
Pineapple, fresh		11.6	84
Pineapple juice	11.8		86
Plantains	25.3		64
Plums, American	8.3		85
Plums, English cooking		6.2	85
Plums, English dessert		9.6	85
Pomegranate, pulp with seeds	11.9		75
Pomegranate juice		11.6	85

* Flesh only; no skin.

Food items.	Sugar, per cent.	Total available carbohydrate, per cent.	Water content, per cent.
sweet	5.4	25.6	68.5
white		24.4	78.3
white, boiled		17.8	
.		5.1	90.5
.	9.1		85.3
juice	6.3		
.	3.4		93.6
ries, American black	7.9		80.7
ean black, juice	7.6		88.4
ean red	7.2		83.4
ean red, juice	7.3		90.8
h		5.6	83.2
.	0.4		94.9
gas	6.7		89.1
us, green, shelled		4.6	64.7
.	0.3		92.7
, New Zealand	0.9		91.4
raw, cushaw		5.1	90.4
summer		1.4	95.0
winter		4.9	88.6
d once	2.9		93.7
d thrice	2.6		94.0
.	5.0		91.1
berries, American	5.3		90.0
berries, American, medium ripe	4.1		
berries, English		6.2	88.9
erry juice	3.6		94.2
.		19.6	75.1
ines	8.7		87.3
ine juice	7.8		89.2
oes, ripe, American, raw		3.5	94.1
e, American, boiled		2.5	
e, American, canned		3.3	
e, English		2.8	
en		1.6	94.7
os	4.6		90.9
melon	6.0		92.1
.		18.7	72.6

TABLE 57.—Crude Fiber Content of Some Foods.

Those items designated *mws* show analyses by R. A. McCance, E. M. W. and L. R. B. Shackleton on foods purchased in Great Britain (Med. J. Council Special Report No. 213, 1936). Otherwise analytical data was largely from U. S. Department of Agriculture Circulars 50 and 145. An asterisk denotes that the figure is based on the weight of raw material contained in a serving of $\frac{1}{2}$ cup; data in part from J. L. Kantor and L. F. Cooper (Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci., 10, 965, 1937). A double dagger indicates that the analyses were made by F. C. Hummel, M. L. Shepherd, I. G. Macy (Jour. Am. Dietet. Assn. 16, 122, 1936). The figure in parenthesis represents the percentage of the total fiber in the form of highly indigestible lignin. It will be noted that the English values for carbohydrate are consistently higher than the others.

Food items.	Size of portion.		Fiber	Grams per portion
	Grams.	Household measures.	Per cent.	
Almond butter	15	1 T.	3.9	0.58
Meal	25	2 T.	2.9	0.78
Paste	10	1 t.	7.8	0.78
Almonds	30	20	3.0	0.90
<i>mws</i>	30	20	12.0	3.00
Apple, fig and date dessert, Heinz	60	2 oz.	1.0	0.60
Apple powder	8	1 T.	6.7	0.54
Sauce	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	1.08
Sauce, strained, canned	135	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.5	0.58
Apples	130	1, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	1.0	1.30
Apples†	130	1, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	0.8 (27)	1.04
Eating, <i>mws</i>	130	1, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	2.2	2.86
Cooking, <i>mws</i>	130	1, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	2.4	3.12
Baked, canned	120	1, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " diam.	0.7	0.84
Apricots	50	2 med.	0.6	0.30
<i>mws</i>	50	2 med.	2.1	1.05
Canned	70	3 halves	0.5	0.35
<i>mws</i>	70	3 halves	1.3	0.91
Strained, canned	15	1 T.	0.6	0.09
Dried	10	1 T.	3.2	0.32
<i>mws</i>	10	1 T.	24.0	2.40
Artichokes, globe	50	1 lg.	3.2	1.60
Jerusalem	100	1 lg.	0.8	0.80
Asparagus	75	6, 6" stalks	0.7	0.52
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	75	5 spears	1.5	***
*** Only 50 per cent of cooked weight is edible.				
Tips, canned	75	5 spears	0.6	0.45
Strained, canned	14	1 T.	0.5	0.07
Avocados, av.	85	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	1.4	1.19
<i>mws</i>	85	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " long	2.0	1.70
Bamboo shoots	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.80
Banana powder	8	1 T.	3.3	0.26
Bananas	100	1 sm.	0.6	0.60
<i>mws</i>	100	1 sm.	3.4	3.40
Ripe†	100	1 sm.	0.8 (60)	0.80
Barley, pearled	30	3 T.	0.3	0.09
Bean soup	250	1 c.	0.4	1.00
Bean sprouts	65	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.0	0.63
Beans, baked	250	1 c.	1.4	3.50
<i>mws</i>	250	1 c.	5.1	12.75
canned	250	1 c.	1.0	2.50
Broad, green, shelled	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.0	1.50
Broad, boiled, <i>mws</i>	125	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.2	5.25
Butter, boiled, <i>mws</i>	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	5.1	5.10
Lima, green	60	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.5	0.90
Canned	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.2	1.56
Baby, canned	130	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.0	1.30
String	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.4	1.05
Small, whole stringless, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.4	0.40

Items.	Size of portion.		Fiber.	
	Grams ¹	Household measures.	Per cent.	Grams per portion.
Asparagus, green, canned	14	1 T.	1.0	0.14
Beans, navy	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.4	3.30
	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.6	4.60
Beef liver soup, Heinz	30	1 oz.	0.2	0.06
Beef (t) hash, canned	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.3	0.69
Beef, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.3	0.35
Beets	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.4	1.05
	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.9	0.68
Broccoli, mws	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	1.87
Butter, canned	15	1 T.	0.5	0.08
	9	1 heaping T.	1.5	0.14
Baking powder	75	1 lg.	0.2	0.15
Carrots	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	4.1	3.08
	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	7.3	5.47
Cauliflower	120	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	2.5	3.00
Celery	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	1.2	1.20
Corn	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.0	1.20
Cucumbers	30	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	5.1	1.53
Cakes, Post's 40%	30	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	3.9	1.17
Carrots, prepared	3	1 T.	8.5	0.25
Carrots, Post's	3	1 T.	8.3	0.25
Chickpeas, crude	3	1 T.	11.3	0.34
Chickpeas	30	4 av.	3.9	1.17
	30	4 av.	14.7	4.41
Pumpernickel	30	1 sl.	1.3	0.39
	25	1 sl.	0.5	0.12
Whole wheat	30	1 sl.	1.2	0.36
Whole wheat	25	1 sl.	0.5	0.12
Whole wheat	25	1 sl.	0.8 (8)	0.20
Whole wheat	30	1 sl.	1.2	0.36
Whole wheat	30	1 sl.	2.8 (16)	0.84
Whole wheat	3	1 T.	22.6	0.68
Whole wheat	20	2 T.	5.6	1.12
Whole wheat	100	1 med. stalk	1.3	1.30
Whole wheat	100	1 med. stalk	4.2	4.20
Whole wheat	100	1 c.	1.3	1.30
Whole wheat	100	1 c.	4.8	4.80
Whole wheat			0.0	
Whole wheat	85	1 c.	1.0 (10)	0.85
Whole wheat	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.2	2.20
Whole wheat	110	1 c.	0.6	0.66
Whole wheat	85	1 c.	3.4	2.89
Whole wheat	60	1	0.1	0.06
Whole wheat	60	1	1.2	0.72
Whole wheat				
Whole wheat	10	1 sm. piece	2.3	0.23
Whole wheat	100	$\frac{1}{4}$, 5" diam.	0.3	0.30
Whole wheat	100	$\frac{1}{4}$, 5" diam.	1.0	1.00
Whole wheat	10	1 T.	71.3	7.13
Whole wheat	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.1 (10)	0.83
Whole wheat	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.0	2.25
Whole wheat	30	1 oz.	0.7	0.21
Whole wheat	15	1 T.	0.6	0.09
Whole wheat	15	10	1.3	0.20
Whole wheat	20	1 T.	0.4	0.08
Whole wheat	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.9	0.68
Whole wheat	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.4	1.80
Whole wheat	100	1 med.	1.4	1.40
Whole wheat	100		4.9	4.90
Whole wheat	40	2, 7" stalks	0.7	0.28
Whole wheat	40	2, 7" stalks	1.8	0.72
Whole wheat	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.2	1.10
Whole wheat	20	4 t.	0.8	0.16

Food items.	Size of portion.		Per cent.	Fiber
	Grams.	Household measures.		
Cemac, Mead	15	1 T.	0.3	0.05
Cereal, Strained, Beech-Nut	25	5 t.	0.2	0.05
Wheatheart, Clapp	15	1 T.	0.2	0.05
Cerevim	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	0.75
Chard, leaves only	100	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.80
Cheese	0.0	..
Cherries	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.3	0.25
<i>mws</i>	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.7	1.25
Black, canned	85	15	0.1	0.75
Maraschino, bottled	5	1	0.3	0.02
Royal Anne, canned	85	15	0.2	0.15
Chestnuts	25	4	1.5	0.98
<i>mws</i>	25	4	9.3	2.32
Chickory, leaves	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.40
Chili sauce	20	1 T.	0.7	0.14
Chives	55	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.0	1.55
Chocolate, sweetened	30	1 oz.	2.0	0.60
Unsweetened	30	1 oz.	2.5	0.75
Citron, candied	10	1 sm. piece	1.4	0.14
Cocoa powder	5	2 t.	4.0	0.20
Cocoanut	10	1" sq.	3.4	0.44
<i>mws</i>	10	1" sq.	7.6	0.76
Desiccated	4	1 T.	4.1	0.16
Moist, canned	5	1 T.	4.2	0.21
Cocoanut milk, <i>mws</i>	0.0	..
Collards	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.0	0.50
Cookies:				
Fig bars	30	2	1.7	0.51
Gingersnaps	20	3	0.4	0.08
Home-made type	20	1	0.2	0.04
Macaroons	40	1 lg.	1.1	0.44
Molasses	20	1	0.4	0.08
Oatmeal	20	1	0.3	0.06
Peanut	20	1, 3" diam.	0.8	0.16
Sandwich-type	25	2	0.3	0.07
Shortbread	25	3	0.1	0.02
Wafers	15	4	0.2	0.03
Corn, sweet	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.8	0.60
Cream style, canned	115	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.3	0.35
Whole kernel, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.6	0.60
Corn Flakes, Kellogg's	30	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.4	0.12
Corn Flakes†	30	$1\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.4 (15)	0.42
Corn beef hash, canned	230	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0.5	1.15
Cornmeal	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.4	0.08
Yellow, old-type	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	1.8	1.80
Cornsalad	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.20
Cracked wheat	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	2.7	0.81
Crackers, Graham	25	3, 3" sq.	1.5	0.38
Graham†	25	3, 3" sq.	2.2 (40)	0.55
Soda	10	2, 2" sq.	0.3	0.03
Cranberries	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.4	0.70
<i>mws</i>	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	4.2	2.10
Cranberry sauce, canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.4	0.40
Cream of Wheat, "5-minute"	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.5	0.10
Cress, garden	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.2	0.24
Cucumbers	75	2" x $2\frac{1}{2}$ "	0.5	0.38
<i>mws</i>	75	2" x $2\frac{1}{2}$ "	0.4	0.30
Currants, all, av.	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.2	1.60
Black, <i>mws</i>	25	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	8.7	2.17
Red, <i>mws</i>	25	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	8.2	2.05
White, <i>mws</i>	25	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	6.8	1.70
Dried, <i>mws</i>	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.5	3.25
Damson plums, <i>mws</i>	50	4 med.	4.1	2.05

CRUDE FIBER CONTENT OF SOME FOODS

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Food items.	Size of portion.		Fiber.	
	Grams.	Household measures.	Per cent.	Grams per portion.
Food items.	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.8	0.90
Green beans	100	1 tuber	0.7	0.70
ried	15	3 sm.	2.2	0.33
	15	3 sm.	8.7	1.30
Sorrel	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.20
uts	45	1, 3" diam.	0.2	0.09
	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.9	0.68
	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	1.87
			0.0	
	8	1 T.	2.0	0.16
chicory, leaves	15	$\frac{1}{4}$ sm. head	0.8	0.12
	15	$\frac{1}{4}$ sm. head	2.2	0.33
	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.2	0.04
ed, Beech-Nut	25	5 t.	0.1	0.03
	50	$\frac{1}{2}$, 3" diam.	0.8	0.40
esh	75	3	1.7	1.28
d	45	3	5.8	2.61
d, mws	45	3	18.5	8.32
ota, canned	85	3	0.8	0.68
s (hazelnuts)	35	30	3.0	1.05
	35	30	10.3	3.60
			0.0	
			0.4	0.46
buckwheat	115	1 c.	0.4	0.40
	100	1 c.	3.7	3.70
bean	100	$1\frac{1}{4}$ c. sc.	0.7	0.70
ite	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	1.2	0.36
whole wheat flakes	30	1 c.	0.3	0.03
h dressing, com.	11	2 t.	0.4	0.56
salad, canned	140	1 c.	1.1	1.54
	140	1 c.	0.0	
in			0.7	0.07
er, crystallized	10	1 sm. piece	0.1	0.06
rbread	60	1 sq.	2.5	2.50
berries	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	3.5	3.50
pe, mws	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	1.5	1.80
anned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.3	0.30
efruit	100	$\frac{1}{2}$, 4" diam	0.2	0.27
anned	135	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	2.4	0.72
anned	30	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.		
ee-Nuts			0.5	0.50
es, American types (slip skin)	100	24		
European types (adherent skin)	100	15 lg.	0.5	0.50
hompsonseedless, canned	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.2	0.24
engage plums, mws	50	3 med	2.6	1.30
avas, common	15	1 sm.	5.5	0.83
alnuts (filberts)	35	30	3.0	1.05
ms	35	30	10.3	3.60
lory nuts	35	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	2.0	0.70
tiny grits	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.7	0.14
ooked or canned	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1	0.10
ney			0.0	
neydew melon	240	$\frac{3}{4}$ c. diced	0.5	1.20
aseradish, prepared	10	1 t.	1.0	0.10
aseradish roots	5	$\frac{1}{2}$ t.	2.4	0.12
ms	5	$\frac{1}{2}$ t.	8.3	0.41
ckleberries	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	1.2	1.20
ms and preserves, com.	25	1 T.	0.6	0.15
Home-cooked	25	1 T.	1.2	0.30
lies			0.0	
le, leaves	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.2	0.90
hlish	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.1	0.76
rambles	30	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.9	0.57
inquats	50	3 med.	3.7	1.85
mb stew, canned	115	$\frac{1}{4}$ lb.	0.4	0.46

Food items.	Size of portion.		Per cent.	Fiber per 100 grams.
	Grams.	Household measures.		
Lambsquarters	75	1½ c.	2.6	1.95
Leeks, bulbs and leaves . . .	55	½ c.	1.3	0.72
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	75	½ c.	3.9	2.92
Lemons, whole, <i>mws</i>		5.2	
Lemon juice, <i>mws</i>		0.0	
Lentils	60	¼ c.	3.0	1.80
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	250	1 c.	2.4	6.00
Lettuce†	50	1 lg. leaf	0.6 (12)	0.30
<i>mws</i>	50	1 lg. leaf	1.4	0.70
Litchi "nuts"	25	10	3.2	0.80
Loganberries	75	¾ c.	1.4	1.05
<i>mws</i>	75	¾ c.	6.2	4.65
Canned	120	¾ c.	2.0	2.40
Loquats	25	1 med.	0.5	0.12
Macadamia nuts	30	14	2.5	0.75
Macaroni	25	½ c.*	0.4	0.10
Boiled	240	1 c.	0.1	0.24
Macaroons	40	1 lg.	1.1	0.44
Malt Breakfast Food	30	½ c.	1.5	0.45
Malted milk	8	1 T.	0.3	0.02
Mangoes	160	1 sm.	1.0	1.60
Meat		0.0	
Melba toast	20	2, 4" sq.	0.4	0.08
Mellin's Food	15	2 T.	0.2	0.03
Melotose	9	1 T.	1.0	0.09
Milk		0.0	
Molasses		0.0	
Mushrooms	50	¼ c.*	0.9	0.45
<i>mws</i>	50	¼ c.*	2.5	1.25
Buttons, canned	50	¼ c.	0.7	0.35
Slices, canned	50	¼ c.	0.7	0.35
Stems and pieces	50	¼ c.	2.9	1.45
Muskmelons, av.	100	½, 5" diam.	0.7	0.70
Mustard and cress, <i>mws</i> . . .	20	½ c.	3.7	0.74
Mustard greens	75	½ c.*	0.8	0.60
Nectarines	100	1 med.	0.4	0.40
<i>mws</i>	100	1 med.	2.4	2.40
Nestlé's Food	8	1 T.	0.9	0.07
Noodles	25	½ c.*	0.4	0.10
Oatmeal, strained, Beech-				
Nut	25	5 t.	0.2	0.05
Oats, rolled	20	½ c.*	0.9	0.18
Oils		0.0	
Okra	50	7, 2½" pods	1.0	0.50
Olives, green, brined	14	3	1.2	0.17
Ripe, brined, med.	14	3	1.8	0.25
Mammoth	15	2	2.6	0.39
Onions	75	½ c.*	0.8	0.60
<i>mws</i>	75	½ c.	1.3	0.97
Young, green	25	5 sm.	1.8	0.45
Young, green, <i>mws</i>	25	5 sm.	3.1	0.77
Oranges	100	1 sm.	0.6	0.60
<i>mws</i>	100	1 sm.	2.0	2.00
Canned	135	¾ c.	0.5	0.67
Orange juice, <i>mws</i>		0.0	
Pabulum	5	2 T.	0.9	0.05
Papaya	120	⅓ av.	0.9	1.08
Parsley	1	1 t.	1.8	0.02
Parsnips	75	½ c.*	2.2	1.65
<i>mws</i>	75	½ c.*	4.0	3.00
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	75	½ c.*	2.5	1.87
Passion fruit, <i>mws</i>	100		15.9	15.90
Peaches	100	1 sm.	0.6	0.60
<i>mws</i>	100	1 sm.	1.4	1.40
Yellow cling, canned	140	2 halves	0.3	0.42

Food items.	Size of portion.		Fiber.	
	Grams.	Household measures.	Per cent.	Grams per portion.
d, canned	15	1 T.	0.5	0.07
	50	3 med.	3.5	1.75
mas	50	3 med.	14.3	7.15
	60	30	2.4	1.44
	60	30	9.4	5.64
butter	15	1 T.	2.2	0.33
butter†	15	1 T.	1.3 (12)	0.20
	150	1, 3" long	1.4	2.10
	150	1, 3" long	2.5	3.75
tt, canned	100	2 halves	0.6	0.60
	75	4 halves	6.1	4.58
reen	75	½ c.*	2.2	1.65
i, mws	75	½ c.	5.2	3.90
i, boiled, mws	75	½ c.	5.2	3.90
g, canned	70	½ c.	1.0	0.70
ed, mws	70	½ c.	4.4	3.08
ned, canned	25	5 t.	0.7	0.17
i, boiled, mws	70	½ c.	4.8	3.36
l, split	50	½ c.	1.2	0.60
nd carrots, canned	75	½ c.	1.2	0.90
	25	6	2.2	0.55
s, green	25	3" piece	1.4	0.35
	25	3" piece	1.6	0.40
mons	50	1 sm.	1.5	0.75
hu's	20	2 T.	2.2	0.44
s, cucumber	20	1 T. (chopped)	0.4	0.08
tos, canned	11	1 t.	0.6	0.06
ople	75	½ c. diced	0.4	0.30
	75	½ c. diced	1.2	9.00
edied	50	1 slice	0.8	0.40
shed, canned	75	½ c.	0.4	0.30
ed, canned	75	1 sl.	0.3	0.23
bits, canned	75	½ c.	0.2	0.15
pple rice pudding,				
nz	60	2 oz.	0.3	0.18
nuts (pignolias)	10	1 T.	1.0	0.10
chios	20	¼ c.	2.5	0.50
s	50	2, 2½" long	0.5	0.25
s	100	4	2.1	2.10
orn, popped	15	1 c.	1.7	0.25
oes, sweet	100	1 med.	1.0	1.00
et, boiled, mws	100	1 med.	2.3	2.30
ite	100	1 med.	0.4	0.40
ite†	100	1 med.	0.5 (11)	0.50
ite, new, boiled, mws	100	3 med.	2.0	2.00
ite, old, boiled, mws	100	1 med.	1.0	1.00
ry			0.0	
els	25	6 med.	0.3	0.08
e pudding, Heinz	60	2 oz.	1.2	0.07
s, fresh	100	4 med.	0.5	0.50
aned	100	3 med.	0.3	0.30
ained, canned	15	1 T.	0.7	0.10
ed	50	4 lg.	1.6	0.80
ed, mws	50	4 lg.	16.1	8.05
l Rice	15	1 c.	0.5	0.08
l Wheat	15	1 c.	1.6	0.24
kin	100	½ c.	1.3	1.30
	100	½ c.	0.5	0.50
aned	125	½ c.	1.2	1.50
hes	50	6 med.	0.7	0.35
	50	6 med.	1.0	0.50
	60	½ c.	1.7	1.02
	60	½ c.	6.8	4.08

		Size of portion.		Fiber	
Food items.	Grams.	Household measures.	Per cent.	Fiber in grams.	
Raspberries, black	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	3.5	2.62	
Red	75	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	2.8	2.10	
Canned, water pack	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	2.50	
Canned, heavy syrup	140	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	1.9	2.56	
Rhubarb	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	0.7	2.75	
<i>mws</i>	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	2.6	2.60	
Rice, natural brown	20	1 heaping T.	0.9	0.28	
White	20	1 heaping T.	0.3	0.06	
White, boiled	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1	0.50	
Wild Indian	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.4	0.28	
Rice bran	3	1 T.	10.7	0.22	
Rice Flakes	30	1 c.	0.7	0.21	
Rusk, white flour	15	1	0.2	0.33	
Whole wheat	15	1	1.9	0.39	
Rutabagas	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.3	0.65	
<i>Ry-Krisp</i>	6	1	1.3	0.08	
Salsify	100	2, 6" long	1.8	1.80	
Sauerkraut	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.0	0.80	
Savoy cabbage, boiled, <i>mws</i>	100	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	2.5	2.50	
Seakale	100	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.80	
Shredded Wheat	30	1 biscuit	2.6	1.78	
Shredded Wheat†	30	1 biscuit	5.9 (13)	1.77	
Sobee, Mead	5	1 T.	1.4	0.07	
Sorrel or dock	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.8	0.20	
Soups:					
Clear		0.0		
Cream of vegetable	250	1 c.	0.1	0.25	
Soybean curd or cheese	100		0.1	0.10	
Spaghetti	25	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.4	0.10	
Spanish melon	240	$\frac{3}{4}$ c. diced	0.5	1.20	
<i>mws</i>	240	$\frac{3}{4}$ c. diced	0.9	2.16	
Spinach	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.7	0.53	
Spinach†	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.5 (23)	0.38	
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	6.3	4.72	
Chopped, Heinz	30	1 oz.	0.7	0.21	
Strained, canned	25	5 t.	0.7	0.18	
Spring greens, boiled, <i>mws</i>	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.8	2.85	
Squash, summer	100	$\frac{1}{8}$, 5"	0.5	0.50	
Winter	100	2 x 2 x 1"	1.4	1.40	
Starches	8	1 T.	0.1	0.01	
Strawberries	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	1.2	1.20	
<i>mws</i>	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	2.2	2.20	
Swedes, boiled, <i>mws</i>	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	2.8	1.40	
Syrups		0.0		
Tangerines	100	2, 2" diam.	1.0	1.00	
<i>mws</i>	100	2, 2" diam.	1.9	1.90	
Tapioca	40	$\frac{1}{4}$ c.	0.1	0.04	
Thousand Island Dressing, com.	20	1 T.	0.6	0.12	
Tomato juice†	120	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.1 (7)	0.12	
Tomato paste, canned	30	1 oz.	0.9	0.27	
Tomatoes	100	1 sm.	0.6	0.60	
<i>mws</i>	100	1 sm.	1.5	1.50	
Strained, canned	25	5 t.	0.4	0.10	
Turnips	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	1.1	0.55	
<i>mws</i>	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	2.8	1.40	
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	50	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	2.2	1.10	
Turnip tops	100	1 c.	1.2	1.20	
Boiled, <i>mws</i>	100	1 c.	3.9	3.90	
Vegetable marrow, boiled, <i>mws</i>	100	$\frac{2}{3}$ c.	0.6	0.60	
Vegetable mixture, canned	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.7	0.56	
Vegetable soup	250	1 c.	0.5	1.25	

Food items.	Size of portion.		Fiber.	
	Grams.	Household measures.	Per cent.	Grams per portion.
Asparagus, green, creamed.				
Chopped, Heinz	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.9	0.72
Black	80	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.5	0.40
	8	1 T.	0.7	0.06
	35	6	1.9	0.66
	35	6	2.1	0.73
Beans, mws	35	6	22.6	7.91
Beans	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	0.5	0.10
	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	3.3	0.66
Beet, sliced	240	1 c. diced	0.6	1.44
Beet, sliced	30	$\frac{3}{4}$ c.	1.8	0.54
Bermuda	9	1 heaping T.	2.5	0.23
Brussels	75	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.	1.8	1.35
	20	$\frac{1}{2}$ c.*	0.6	0.12
	35	1 c.	1.8	0.63
	125	1 med	0.8	1.00
	100	1 tuber	0.6	0.60
	7	1 piece	0.3	0.02
Brewer's	11	2 t.	0.8	0.09
Bran	15	1 square	0.3	0.05

Purins.

foods which contain nucleic acid (and hence the purin ring) are designated as purin foods. The end-product of purin metabolism is uric acid. All animal foods except milk, cheese, and fresh eggs are rich in purins. Glandular organs and meat extracts show the highest concentration. In Table 58 A no uric acid equivalent for purin N is shown for items containing methylated purins since it is questionable whether such are converted under physiologic conditions into uric acid. The theobromine of cocoa and chocolate does not form uric acid.

Purin analyses are shown in two separate tables, 58 A presenting data which do not necessarily agree with the newer figures of Table 58 B from McCance and Widdowson ("Chemical Composition of Foods," Medical Research Council, 1940).

The only analyses of these investigators which appear in Table 58 are those for coffee and tea which are designated (*mw*). Fish has been reported as containing no purin nitrogen but McCance and Widdowson found high concentrations.

TABLE 58 A.—Purin Content of Various Foods

<i>Food items</i>	<i>Purins, mg. per 100 gms.</i>
Anchovies	145.0
Apricots	None
Apples	None
Arrowroot	None
Asparagus, cooked	8.6
Bananas	None
Barley	None
Beans	25.0
Beef, muscle	60.0
Pancreas	183.0
Ribs	45.5
Sirloin	52.2
Steak	82.6
Beer, Lager	5.0
Pale ale	5.9
Porter	6.0
Blueberries	None
Bouillon	10.0
Bread, white	None
Butter	None
Cabbage	None
Calves' liver	120.0
Calves' spleen	160.0
Calves' thymus	440.0
Carp	60.0
Carrots	None
Cauliflower	None
Caviar	None
Celery	5.0
Cheese	None
Chicken	51.8
Cod	23.3
Coffee	29.4
Coffee, ground, roasted (<i>mw</i>)	38.0
Coffee, infusion (<i>mw</i>)	Trace
Corn	None
Crab	20.0
Cucumbers	None
Eel, smoked	27.0
Eggs, fresh	None
Farina	None
Filberts	None
Flour, white	None
Fruits	None
Gelatin	None
Goose	33.0
Grapes	None

	Purin N. mg. per cent.	Calculated as given and not as such
	40.8	122.4
	40.2	138.6
	25.0	75.0
	69.0	207.0
	25.0	75.0
	15.0	45.0
	None	
	110.0	330.0
	120.0	360.0
	38.0	114.0
	22.0	66.0
	None	
	18.0	54.0
	38.6	115.8
	None	
	None	
	3.1	9.3
	None	
	29.0	87.0
	183.0	549.0
beef	123.0	369.0
pig's	18.0	54.0
	15.6	46.8
	None	
	None	
	34.0	102.0
	None	
	45.0	135.0
	31.8	95.4
	None	
	48.5	145.5
	22.7	68.1
	0.8	2.4
	38.0	114.0
	5.0	15.0
	None	
	None	
	40.0	120.0
	110.7	332.1
in oil	27.0	81.0
ans	20.5	61.5
	78.0	234.0
	2.0	6.0
acare	230.0	690.0
tends*	None	
	16.4	49.2
olon	10.7	32.1
hira		

* If glands are frequently used as sweeteners.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Purin N, mg. per cent.</i>	
Tea, Indian	14.7	
Tea, Indian (<i>mw</i>)	72.0	
Tea, infusion (<i>mw</i>)	Trace	
Thymus, beef	402.5	127
Thymus, calves'	440.0	132
Tomatoes	None	
Tongue, smoked	55.0	165
Tripe	22.9	68
Trout	56.0	168
Turkey	50.4	151
Veal broth	423.3	1270
Veal, loin	46.5	139
Veal, muscle	60.0	180
Venison	39.0	117
Walnuts	None	
Wines (Claret, Volnay, Sherry, Port) . .	None	

TABLE 58 B.—Purin Content of Cooked Meat and Fish Products.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Purin N, mg. per cent.</i>	<i>Calculated as uric acid mg. per cent.</i>
Bacon, fried	66-86	198-258
Bass, steamed	73	219
Beef, corned, canned	36	108
Beef, sirloin, roasted, lean	60	180
Lean and fat	46	138
Beef, silverside, boiled	55	165
Beef, steak, fried	61	183
Grilled	85	255
Beef, topside, boiled, lean only	72	216
Beef, topside, roasted, lean only	73	219
Lean and fat	66	198
Beef, stewed, lean only	61	183
Beef stew	32	96
Bloaters, grilled	133	399
<i>Bovril</i>	324	972
Brains, calves', boiled	40	120
Brains, sheep, boiled	31	93
Catfish, steamed	60	180
Fried	65	195
Chicken, boiled	61	183
Chicken, roasted	72	216
Cod, steamed	62	186
Cod steaks, fried	63	189
Grilled	82	246
Cod roe, baked in vinegar	130	390
Cod roe, fried	112	336
Crab, boiled	61	183

Food items	Purin N, mg. per cent.	Calculated as uric acid, mg. per cent.
Meat	18	54
Steamed	64	192
Ed	23	69
S	36	108
Steamed	86	258
.	61	183
.	100	300
Roasted	98	294
Roasted	142	426
Bowl, roasted	72	216
Chicken, fresh, steamed	83	249
.	65	195
Chicken, smoked, steamed	68	204
.	52	156
Fried	42	126
Steamed	64	192
Boiled, lean only	45	135
And fat	99	297
Roasted	60	180
Ed	174	522
Sheep, roasted	160	480
Chicken, baked in vinegar	172	516
Chicken, fried	484	1452
Chicken roe (soft), fried	11	33
Stew	147	441
Chicken, ox, stewed	137	411
Chicken, sheep, fried	91	273
Chicken, baked	0	0
.	60	180
Steamed	56	168
Ed	143	429
Chicken, Calves', fried	143	429
Chicken, ox, fried	73	219
Chicken, boiled	100	300
Chicken, kerel, fried	73	219
Chicken, gray, steamed	81	243
Chicken, red, steamed	154	462
Chicken, sels, boiled	63	189
Chicken, ton chop, fried, lean only	40	120
Chicken, ton chop, fried, lean and fat	61	183
Chicken, ton chop, grilled, lean only	46	138
Chicken, ton chop, grilled, lean and fat	91	273
Chicken, ton, leg, boiled	77	231
Chicken, ton, leg, roasted	56	168
Chicken, ton, scrag and neck, stewed	236	708
Chicken, cubes	44	132
Chicken, sters	145	435
Chicken, tridge, roasted		

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Purine N mg. per cent.</i>	<i>mg. per 100 g.</i>
Pigeon, boiled	83	247
Pigeon, roasted	96	288
Pheasant, roasted	95	285
Plaice, steamed	53	159
Fried	47	141
Pollack, steamed	71	213
Fried	75	225
Pork, leg, roasted	66	198
Pork loin, roasted lean only	64	192
Lean and fat	51	153
Pork loin, smoked, cooked, lean only	50	150
Pork, loin chops, grilled, lean only	68	204
Lean and fat	49	147
Prawns, cooked	70	210
Rabbit, stewed	61	183
Salmon, canned	101	303
Salmon, steamed	78	234
Sardines, canned	234	702
Sausage, black	2	6
Scallops, steamed	117	351
Shepherd's pie	15	45
Shrimps, cooked	72	216
Skate, fried	41	123
Smelts, fried	168	504
Sole, steamed	53	159
Fried	52	156
Sprats, fried	125	375
Sprats, smoked, grilled	250	750
Steak and kidney pie	49	147
Sturgeon, steamed	50	150
Sweetbreads, stewed	426	1278
Tongue, ox, pickled	48	144
Tongue, sheep, stewed	52	156
Tripe, stewed	22	66
Trout, steamed	92	276
Trout, sea, steamed	95	285
Turbot, steamed	64	192
Turkey, roasted	79	237
Veal cutlet, fried	106	318
Veal fillet, roasted	89	267
<i>Vegetex (marmite)</i>	356	1068
Venison, roasted	97	291
Whelks, cooked	65	195
Whiting, steamed	90	270
Fried	94	282
Winkles, boiled	70	210

TABLE 59.—Cholesterol Content of Foods.†

	mg. per 100 grams (moist wt.)	Food items.	mg. per 100 grams (moist wt.)
l, lean .	95	Egg-yolk, hen's, fresh	2000
	125	dried	3900
	2200	Heart, beef	150
	280	poultry	160
		Kidney, beef	400
		Liver, beef	190-320
n	160	calf	360
ssed	155	lamb	610
ger, processed	135	pork	420
ey Jack	190	Lungs, beef	350-390
cream	140	Oysters*	230-470
	145	Pork spareribs	105
	160	Sweetbreads	220-280
	145	Tripe	150
s, whole fresh	468	Veal, breast	100
	2140	shank	140
		Yeast, brewer's, dried*	680

foods contain sterols other than cholesterol; figure represents total digito-
state.

from Okey, R.: Jour. Am. Dietet. Assn. **21**, 341, 1945.

ESSENTIAL NON-CALORIC COMPONENTS OF FOODS

WATER.

The total water supply on an average diet exceeds the intake by about 700 grams. The water eliminated by the lungs exceeds the urine volume by approximately the same amount. The water of combustion for carbohydrates is 55 to 60 grams for every 100 grams oxidized, 40 to 45 grams for protein, and about 110 grams for fat. For further pertinent facts in the water economy of the body, consult pages 124-125. The following table indicates the quantities of water present in common foods as ingested.

TABLE 60.—Water Content of Various Foods as Eaten.*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Almonds	5	Cheese:	
Apples	79-91	Compound	
Apricots	82-92	Cottage	60
Artichokes, French, cooked	85	Cream	38
Artichokes, Jerusalem, cooked	80	Cream, Phila.	15
Asparagus, cooked	92-95	Parmesan	15
Avocados	55-84	Potted cottage	
Bananas (av. 75 per cent).	65-83	Process	
Beans:		Roquefort	37
Baked	68-70	Soft rennet	50
Kidney, cooked	72-73	Swiss	25
Lima, canned	80	Cherries	75
String, cooked	93-95	Chestnuts, fresh	
Beef, cooked	52-60	Chicken, cooked	55
Beets, cooked	80-85	Chicory	91
Brazil nuts	8	Chocolate	
Bread, including rolls	25-36	Cocoanut, canned moist	
Bread, freshly baked†	31-38	Cocoanut, desiccated	
Bread, air-dried	10-15	Cocoanut, fresh	
Bread, toasted	5-10	Cookies	3
Broccoli, cooked	90-93	Corn, † young	76
Brussels sprouts	90-95	Corn, † medium	69
Butter	15-16	Corn, † old	60
Cabbage, boiled	92-95	Corn, canned	
Cabbage, raw	88-94	Cornsalad	92
Cabbage, Chinese	94-97	Crackers, biscuits	3
Cake	16-30	Cream	54
Candy	4-6	Cress, garden	81
Carrots, raw	83-91	Cucumbers	95
Carrots, cooked	81-92	Currants, fresh	77
Cauliflower, cooked	94-95	Damsons	77
Celeriac	84-91	Dandelion greens	81
Celery	90-95	Dates	15
cooked	96	Dock or sorrel	92
Cereals, prepared	8-10	Egg-white	
Cheese:		Egg-yolk	
American	28-38	Eggs, whole	73
Camembert	43-54	Endive	91
		Fennel	

* "Cooked" implies boiled.

† Raw, for comparative purposes only.

‡ 38% is standard.

<i>Food items</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Food items</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
sh	40	Parsnips, cooked	83-90
ed	50-88	Peaches	82-90
s, English	52-70	Peanut butter	2
.	55-70	Peanuts	5-9
.	83-90	Pears	76-86
.	75-85	Peas, green, cooked	75-85
.	86-89	Peas, † young	80-84
.	15-30	Peas, † medium	70-79
.	75-87	Peas, † old	57-69
.	92-94	Peppers, green	91-94
.	77-87	Pineapple, fresh	81-90
al	65-85	Plums	74-91
ters	37-50	Potatoes, sweet, baked	52-55
es:		Potatoes, sweet, boiled	72
.	87	Potatoes, white:	
.	91-96	Baked	45
.	80	Boiled	75-80
.	85	Chips	2-6
ple	86-91	French fried	47
nit	75-87	Mashed	73
.	90	Roast	64
cooked	45-50	Prunes	20-25
oked	17-18	Radishes	87-96
dish	73-74	Raisins	18-22
m	55-62	Rhubarb	94
.	70-75	Salad greens	93-96
.	15-20	Sauerkraut	88-89
cooked	45-67	Shellfish	70-85
.	85-92	Soups	80-95
cooked	72	Spinach, cooked	85
e	91-97	Stew, meat	83-88
dried	18	Succotash, cooked	76
.		Swiss chard	90-95
.	27-30	Syrup, corn	25
condensed	74	Syrup, maple	25-30
porated	85-88	Squash, boiled	93-94
le	90-91	Tangerines	88-91
n and buttermilk	20-25	Tomato juice	94
ses	60-65	Tomatoes	93-95
ooms, fried	87-96	Tomatoes, fried	85-87
rd greens	45-67	Turnip tops, cooked	92-93
n, cooked	83	Turnips, cooked	94-95
ines	58	Turnips, raw	86-96
green	65	Vegetable marrow, cooked	95-99
ripe	80-90	Vegetables	85-98
s, raw	91-92	Walnuts	20-25
s, cooked	40-45	Watercress	91-97
s, fried	83-90	Watermelon	91-93
es	79-88		
v			

age 78 per cent.

† Raw, for comparative purposes only.

ACIDITY OF FOODS.

The data shown in Tables 61, 62 and 63 represent acidity measurements with the glass electrode (Bridges and Mattice, 1939). All other values are to be found in the literature. Shrimp paste placed at pH 6.28 to 6.43 by Monier-Williams (1924). Food reported to be pH 5.7, bread 5.3, cake 6.7, and macaroni 5.9 (Clarke, 1935). Clague and Fellers (1936) used the quinhydrone electrode for the study of cider made from different varieties of apples; the values ranged from pH 3.1 to 4, including data with reference to clarification processes. Kidd and Hanes (1936) reported increase in the pH (2.8 to 3.7) during storage of apples, the rise being related to warmth of storage atmosphere. The pH of lettuce kraut placed at 5.1 to 5.25 by Cruess and Gilliland (1939). Valaer (1939, 1940) found Scotch whisky to vary from pH 4 to 4.78; domestic and foreign brandies generally fall within the range pH 3 to 5, the acidity in part being attributable to slow production of sulfuric acid.

Haas (1938) examined different sections of the avocado for variations in pH. The inner and outer portions of the soft edible pulp (without skin) of the stem halves of mature fruit were pH 6.82 and 6.72 respectively, whereas the corresponding portions of the tip halves had values of 6.64 and 6.44.

According to Smith (1935) fresh egg-white has a pH of 7.97 but changes to 9.2 to 9.5 on loss of CO_2 during storage. It is believed that the quality is best preserved by holding the pH at 7.5 to 8 by means of carbon dioxide. Ulrik and Davidsen (1933) record the pH of the new-laid egg at approximately 8.2 with a rapid rise to 9.4 during the first twelve hours succeeded by gradual increase to 9.8 by the ninth day. They found no distinct change thereafter until the fifty-third day. Our findings are presented in Table 61.

TABLE 61.—Variation in pH of Eggs With Age.

Age.	Whole.	White.	Yolk.
3 hours	6.58	7.96	6.10
	7.00	8.20	6.88
12 hours (or less)	6.70	7.90	6.00
24 hours	6.62	8.30	6.10
	6.60	8.35	6.10
48 hours	7.43	8.89	6.17
	7.87	8.85	6.29
"New-laid" store eggs	7.72	9.18	6.64
	7.72		
Cold-storage eggs*	7.50	8.87	7.00
	7.60	8.99	6.90
	7.69	8.80	6.38
	7.58	8.90	6.72
	7.32	9.00	6.82
	8.20	8.63	7.80
	7.90	9.00	7.20
	7.62	9.00	

* Except for this group (where each analysis is on a different egg, data across the table represent tests on the same egg, the white and yolk being mixed at separate determinations.

or American Roquefort cheese was found to fall within the pH 4.7 to 6.5 by Coulter and co-workers (1938). The pH is reported by Parsons (1940) as varying from pH 6.6 to 7.1. The pH values noted by Pont and Sutton (1938) varied from 7 to 7.1. Hetchmar (1938) observed marked correlation between the pH and flavor score and the pH findings, the butters with higher pH score generally being less acid than those with lower scores. The optimum acidity for the keeping quality of butter was stated to be pH 6.7 to 6.9, it being regarded as undesirable to store butter with a pH less than 6.3 or more than 7.1.

TABLE 62.—pH of Representative Foods.*

Item.	pH					
Apples, stuffed with capers, in olive oil	6.00, 5.59, 5.62, 5.63, 5.70, 5.19					
Apples (canned)	5.48, 5.62, 6.72, 5.78, 5.80, 5.87					
Apples, baked with sugar	3.33, 3.38, 3.58, 3.35, 3.84, 3.84					
Apples, canned	3.20, 3.22, 3.28, 3.55, 3.54, 3.50					
Applesauce, canned	3.62, 3.52, 3.38, 3.40, 3.35, 3.42					
Applesauce, chopped, Clapp	3.40, 3.23, 3.15, 3.10, 3.09, 3.12					
Applesauce, strained, Clapp	3.24, 3.24, 3.24, 3.24, 3.35, 3.35					
Blackberry jelly, com.	3.24, 3.24, 3.24, 3.24, 3.42, 3.42					
Blackberries	3.00					
Blackberries, canned	4.50, 4.22, 4.67, 4.33, 4.52, 4.18					
Blackberries, unsweetened, canned	3.46, 3.42, 3.42, 3.45, 3.42, 3.47					
Blackberries, puréed, Stokely	3.78					
Blackberries, strained, Clapp	3.80, 3.83, 3.70, 3.68, 3.62, 3.42					
Blackberries, dried, stewed	3.81, 3.78, 3.81, 3.72, 3.95, 3.72					
Blackberries, dried, stewed	3.51, 3.37, 3.30, 3.40, 3.40, 3.30					
Blackberry Nectar (pulp, juice, sugar, water), com.	3.78					
Blackberry root crackers	6.63, 6.80, 6.72					
Blackberry root gruel	6.37, 6.57, 6.67, 6.87					
Blackberries, French, cooked	6.00, 5.75, 5.70, 5.81, 5.80, 5.75					
Blackberries, Jerusalem, cooked	6.00, 5.93, 6.00, 6.00, 5.98, 5.93					
Blackberries, cooked	6.03, 6.13, 6.10, 6.16, 6.10, 6.10					
Blackberries, frozen, cooked	6.42, 6.35, 6.39, 6.48, 6.40, 6.43					
Blackberries, green, canned	5.21, 5.32, 5.23, 5.30, 5.20, 5.30					
Blackberries, strained, Clapp	5.09, 5.09, 5.09, 4.82, 5.09, 4.80					
Blackberries, Cuban	6.47, 6.27, 6.42, 6.27, 6.58, 6.54					
Blackberry soup, unstrained, Clapp	5.00, 5.00, 5.00, 5.00, 5.00, 5.00					
Blackberries, broiled	5.80, 5.20, 5.80, 6.12, 6.10, 6.00					
Blackberries, Canadian, broiled	5.70, 5.60, 5.43, 5.57, 5.50, 5.73					
Blackberry Nectar (pulp, juice, fruit acids, sugar, water), Hawaii	3.00					
Blackberries, red	4.58, 4.62, 4.62, 4.65, 4.68, 4.75					
Blackberries, yellow	5.21, 5.29, 5.00, 5.12, 5.04, 5.10					
Blackberries, cooked	5.19, 5.25, 5.32, 5.28, 5.32, 5.29					
Blackberries, broiled	6.70, 6.70, 6.64, 6.70, 6.58, 6.68					
Blackberries, striped, broiled	6.60, 6.50, 6.60, 6.58, 6.60, 6.70					
Blackberries, black, cooked	5.82, 5.78, 5.93, 6.00, 5.98, 6.02					
Boston-style, home-baked	5.05, 5.09, 5.12, 5.15, 5.12, 5.12					
Boston-style, com.	5.42					

* Data is presented for the edible portion of foods in the raw state unless otherwise specified. Cooking signifies boiling unless otherwise specified. The general order of the following: raw, home-cooked, frozen, canned, commercial (com.), dried, etc. names are italicized. Bridges, M. A., and Mattice, M. R.: Am. Jour. Digests, 7, 440, 1939.

Item.	H				
Beans, pork and tomato sauce, canned					
Beans, vegetarian, tomato sauce, canned					
Beans, kidney, cooked	5 85,	5 90,	6 00,	6 01,	6 02,
Beans, lima, green, cooked	6 19,	6 21,	6 30,	6 19,	6 22,
Beans, lima, frozen, cooked	6 50,	6 56,	5 75,	6 67,	6 45,
Beans, lima, canned	5 76,	5 78,	5 86,	5 90,	5 86,
Beans, lima, dried, cooked		6 12,	6 40,	6 37,	6 40,
Beans, navy, cooked		5 96,	6 00,	6 01,	6 00,
Beans, string, cooked	5 73,	6 73,	5 86,	6 08,	6 20,
Beans, string, canned					4 72,
Beans, string, chopped, Clapp	5 01,	5 01,	5 01,	5 01,	5 12,
Beans, string, puréed, Stokely	4 66,	4 96,	5 00,	4 80,	4 84,
Beans, string, strained, Clapp	5 08,	5 08,	5 08,	5 08,	5 12,
Beans, wax, cooked	5 52,	5 50,	5 58,	5 61,	5 70,
Beef broth, Clapp	6 14,	6 18,	6 14,	6 20,	6 20,
Beef with vegetables, chopped, Clapp	5 50,	5 50,	5 49,	5 50,	5 58,
Beef with vegetables, strained, Clapp	5 17,	5 17,	5 18,	5 18,	5 05,
Beef, filet mignon, broiled					5 40,
Beef, pot-roasted					88,
Beef, ribs, roasted			6 22,	6 50,	5 92,
Beef, round, chopped, broiled					6 23,
Beef, scraped, raw					5 30,
Beef, steak, round, broiled					5 30,
Beefsteak, sirloin, broiled					6 30,
Beet greens, cooked	6 62,	6 58,	7 01,	6 70,	6 70,
Beets, cooked	5 23,	5 52,	5 72,	5 41,	5 82,
Beets, canned	4 95,	4 97,	4 98,	4 97,	4 97,
Beets, chopped, Clapp	5 56,	5 56,	5 56,	5 56,	5 32,
Beets, strained, Clapp	5 56,	5 56,	5 56,	5 56,	5 32,
Bouillon, com.					4 90,
Blackberries, Washington	4 40,	4 50,	4 40,	4 40,	4 25,
Blueberries, Maine	3 22,	3 32,	3 12,	3 22,	3 18,
Blueberries, frozen	3 35,	3 17,	3 11,	3 16,	3 20,
Bluefish (Boston), filet, broiled	6 50,	6 30,	6 10,	6 13,	6 09,
Brambleberry (wild) jelly					3 15,
Bran Flakes	5 45,	5 45,	5 60,	5 67,	5 50,
Bread, Boston brown					6 53,
Bread, corn					6 17,
Bread, cracked wheat					5 43,
Bread, pumpernickel					4 40,
Bread, rye	5 46,	5 90,	5 48,	5 20,	5 60,
Bread, white	5 42,	5 50,	5 65,	5 29,	5 43,
Bread, whole wheat	5 60,	5 48,	5 85,	5 60,	5 47,
Breadfruit, cooked					5 33,
Broccoli, cooked	6 41,	6 46,	6 52,	6 32,	6 40,
Broccoli, frozen, cooked	6 20,	6 88,	6 43,	6 50,	6 43,
Brussels sprouts, cooked	6 05,	6 15,	6 00,	6 01,	6 05,
Buttermilk	4 48,	4 42,	4 45,	4 41,	4 83,
Cabbage, green	5 90,	6 13,	6 18,	5 90,	5 79,
Cabbage, green, cooked	6 77,	6 82,	6 70,	6 65,	6 38,
Cabbage, red	5 43,	5 82,	5 86,	6 00,	5 75,
Cabbage, red, cooked	6 31,	6 31,	6 42,	6 31,	6 21,
Calamondin juice	2 59,	2 51,	2 60,	2 48,	2 41,
Calamondin marmalade, com.					2 82,
Calves' liver, broiled		6 45,	5 90,	6 10,	5 90,
Cantaloupe	6 57,	6 28,	6 43,	6 17,	6 58,
Carrots	6 00,	5 88,	5 98,	5 99,	5 96,
Carrots, cooked	5 70,	5 80,	5 88,	5 62,	5 58,
Carrots, canned	5 20,	5 22,	5 20,	5 18,	5 19,
Carrots, chopped, Clapp	5 56,	5 56,	5 56,	5 56,	5 30,
Carrots, puréed, Stokely	4 55,	4 75,	5 00,	4 72,	4 74,
Carrots, strained, Clapp	5 10,	5 10,	5 10,	5 10,	5 10,
Cauliflower, cooked	6 45,	6 48,	6 67,	6 72,	6 71,
Cauliflower, frozen, cooked	6 07,	6 02,	6 10,	5 90,	5 95,
Caviar, American					5 40,

Item.	pH									
ked	5.88, 6.00, 5.86, 5.70, 5.96, 5.96									
large	5.37, 5.38, 5.50, 5.80, 5.92, 5.70									
b (celeriac), cooked	5.92, 6.02, 6.22, 6.26, 6.28, 6.26									
ained, Clapp	5.80, 5.71, 5.65, 5.71, 5.79, 5.71									
riess, cooked	6.44, 6.44, 6.44, 6.44, 6.20									
cooked	6.78, 6.28, 6.25, 6.25, 6.30, 6.17									
merican, mild, Kraft	6.30, 6.05, 6.00, 6.13, 6.18, 5.90									
amembert						4.90				
cheddar, English						7.44				
ottage						5.90				
ream, Philadelphia		5.02, 5.02, 4.75								
Edam		4.79, 4.10, 4.45, 4.88								
ld English, Kraft						5.40				
toquefort						6.15				
Snappy, Kraft	5.41, 5.64, 5.98, 5.93, 6.10, 5.41									
stilton		5.18, 5.21								
swiss Gruyere						5.70				
California	6.62, 5.17, 5.77, 5.68, 5.73									
frozen	4.54, 4.16, 4.15, 4.06, 4.01, 4.08									
sour, red, New York	3.37, 3.35, 3.32, 3.35, 3.35, 3.35									
black, canned		3.20, 3.12, 3.20								
Maraschino, com.	3.89, 3.93, 3.86, 3.87, 3.88, 3.82									
red, water-pack	3.52, 3.50, 3.50, 3.50, 3.49, 3.47									
Royal Anne, com.	3.29, 3.29, 3.25, 3.32, 3.32, 3.32									
broiled	3.80, 3.80, 3.82, 3.83, 3.80, 3.83									
also see Fowl.	6.50, 6.26, 6.28, 6.08, 6.13, 6.20									
liver, broiled		5.99, 6.20, 6.10								
	5.90, 6.05, 6.05, 5.89, 5.89, 6.05									
	5.64, 5.75, 5.25, 6.10, 6.31, 5.81									
	6.40, 6.58, 6.60, 7.02, 6.58, 6.63									
	5.90, 6.00, 6.00, 6.52, 6.18, 6.00									
ut, fresh		5.04								
ut water		5.32								
n, boiled		7.52, 8.20, 8.40, 8.06, 8.10, 8.07								
s		6.76, 7.04, 6.35, 6.81, 6.22, 7.00								
golden bantam, cooked on cob		7.33, 7.44, 7.50, 7.57, 7.60, 7.68								
frozen, cooked		6.09, 6.44, 6.07, 6.07, 5.90								
canned		5.38, 5.00, 4.88, 4.90, 4.97, 4.85								
akes						6.13				
d beef, brisket, boiled		5.75, 5.79, 5.85, 5.96, 6.01, 6.00								
d beef, pressed, canned		3.02, 2.98, 2.97, 3.00, 3.00								
ple jelly, com.		6.62, 6.77, 6.92, 6.97, 6.93, 6.98								
eat, cooked		2.40, 2.52, 2.35, 2.31, 2.30, 2.30								
erry juice, canned									2.40	
erry sauce, com.		6.52, 6.62, 6.68, 6.52, 6.50, 6.53								
, 20 per cent		6.44, 6.60, 6.60, 6.52, 6.48, 6.50								
, 40 per cent		6.06, 6.10, 6.15, 6.16, 6.16, 6.10								
of Wheat, cooked		5.70, 5.78, 5.18, 5.52, 5.18, 5.55								
ubers									2.70	
ubers, pickled						3.68, 3.70				
ubers, pickled, bread-and-butter type						3.78				
nt, black, jam										
Dromedary	4.58, 4.74, 4.81, 4.88, 4.80, 4.82									
roasted	6.62, 6.40, 7.02, 6.28, 6.00, 6.02									
new-laid, whole						6.58				
white						7.96				
yolk						6.10				
also see Table 61.										
ant, cooked	5.41, 5.41, 5.49, 5.45, 5.45, 5.33									
ille	5.70, 5.92, 5.92, 5.92, 6.00, 5.95									
(1:8, cooked $\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	5.98, 5.98, 5.80, 5.82, 5.94, 6.02									
(anise)	5.48, 5.62, 6.72, 5.78, 5.88, 5.87									
, cooked	6.02, 6.00, 5.80, 5.88, 5.95, 5.88									
Calaminta	5.95, 5.08, 5.08, 5.18, 5.27, 5.10									
anned	5.00, 5.00, 4.92, 5.00, 4.98, 4.98									
a haddie, boiled	6.28, 6.55, 6.43, 6.40, 6.33, 6.30									

Item.	pH				
Flounder, boiled	6.90, 6.73, 6.60, 6.57, 6.55				
Flounder, filet, broiled	6.89, 6.39, 6.50, 6.46, 6.45				
Fowl, boiled	6.20, 6.10, 6.70, 6.40, 6.37				
Frankfurters, boiled	6.10, 6.18, 6.15, 6.18, 6.22				
<i>French Dressing</i> , Kraft					
Fruit, mixed, dried, stewed (apricots, prunes, peaches, apples)	3.53, 3.59, 3.50, 3.27, 3.25				
Gelatin, plain jell					
Gelatin dessert:					
Lime					
Raspberry					
Sherry-wine					
Golden berries (South Africa), canned					
Goose, roasted	5.96, 5.90, 5.98, 6.00, 5.93				
Gooseberry jam, com.					
Graham crackers	7.12, 7.10, 7.10, 7.75, 7.75				
Grape juice, com.					
Grape juice (dil. 1:1)					
Grapes, Concord	2.79, 3.00, 2.95, 2.91, 2.88				
Grapes, lady finger	3.55, 3.58, 3.53, 3.53, 3.51				
Grapes, Malaga	3.73, 3.71, 3.78, 3.71, 3.74				
Grapes, Niagara	2.80, 2.86, 3.14, 3.10, 3.27				
Grapes, Ribier	3.73, 3.80, 3.77, 3.75, 3.70				
Grapes, seedless	3.81, 2.90, 3.12, 3.28, 3.40				
Grapes, Tokay	3.72, 3.50, 3.59, 3.64, 3.50				
Grapefruit	3.70, 3.42, 3.75, 3.22, 3.31				
Grapefruit, canned	3.10, 3.08, 3.29, 3.32, 3.29				
Grapefruit juice, canned	3.25, 3.18, 3.00, 2.90, 2.90				
<i>Grapenuts</i>	5.40, 5.22, 5.18, 5.20, 5.15				
Greens, mixed, chopped, Clapp	5.22, 5.22, 5.22, 5.22, 5.05				
Greens, mixed, strained, Clapp	5.30, 5.30, 5.30, 5.30, 5.22				
Grenadine syrup, Giroux					
Guava jelly, com.					
<i>Guava Nectar</i> (pulp, juice, fruit acids, sugar, water), Hawaii					
Guavas, canned					
Haddock, filet, broiled	6.48, 6.21, 6.17, 6.82, 6.40				
Ham, fresh, baked					
Ham, smoked, baked					
Ham, smoked, boiled					
Hamburger, broiled					
Hominy grits, cooked	5.99, 6.00, 6.02, 6.20, 6.02				
Honey	3.70, 3.90, 3.78, 3.78, 3.75				
Horseradish, freshly ground					
Horseradish, prepared, com.					
Huckleberries, cooked with sugar					
Junket-type dessert:					
Raspberry					
Vanilla					
Kale, cooked	6.70, 6.77, 6.80, 6.38, 6.38				
Karo syrup					
Ketchup, com.					
Kippered herring, Marshall	6.10, 5.87, 6.10, 6.17, 6.14				
Kohlrabi, cooked	5.72, 5.72, 5.72, 5.82, 5.82				
Kumquats, Florida	3.70, 4.25, 3.80, 3.64, 4.03				
Lamb chops (rib), broiled					
Lamb kidneys, broiled					
Lamb, rack, roasted					
Lamb with vegetables, chopped, Clapp	5.98, 6.01, 6.01, 6.01, 5.90				
Leeks	5.77, 5.97, 5.51, 6.07, 5.72				
Leeks, cooked	6.12, 5.79, 6.05, 6.05, 6.05				
Lemon juice	2.05, 2.05, 1.98, 2.10, 2.05				
Lemon juice, canned					
Lentils, cooked	6.83, 6.32, 6.36, 6.32, 6.35				
Lettuce, Boston	6.05, 6.09, 5.89, 5.98, 6.00				
Lettuce, iceberg	6.00, 5.70, 5.70, 6.06, 6.13				

Item.	pH					
	2.10,	2.00,	2.00,	2.11,	2.15,	2.25
juice	2.50,	2.45,	2.42,	2.41,	2.51,	2.40
Clapp	5.60,	5.60,	5.60,	5.60,	5.58,	5.59
vegetables, Clapp	5.29,	5.31,	5.31,	5.31,	5.35,	5.35
boiled	5.40,	5.60,	5.72,	5.75,	5.72,	5.82
boiled	7.26,	7.30,	7.17,	7.43,	7.28,	7.10
king, broiled	6.39,	6.41,	5.60,	6.00,	5.10,	6.00
Spanish, broiled	6.50,	6.43,	6.47,	6.26,	6.33,	6.37
8, cooked $\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	6.36,	6.07,	6.14,	6.22,	6.10,	6.26
Florida	5.81,	5.85,	5.89,	5.90,	5.86,	5.90
up	3.40,	4.43,	3.97,	4.41,	4.63,	4.17
						5.15
						5.70
ast					5.08,	5.30
asaba	5.90,	5.78,	5.57,	5.62,	5.58,	6.00
money dew	6.43,	6.00,	6.42,	6.67,	6.28,	6.50
ersian	6.30,	6.23,	6.09,	5.90,	6.29,	6.38
ade A (New York)				6.68,	6.68,	6.68
ade B (New York)	6.62,	6.69,	6.70,	6.77,	6.68,	6.25
dophilus	4.13,	4.25,	4.15,	4.15,	4.09,	4.09
condensed						6.33
aporated	6.01,	6.10,	6.11,	6.13,	6.11,	5.98
at's						6.48
tonized						7.10
ir, fine curd					5.65,	5.50
ir, precipitated curd					5.10,	4.70
ly, com.						3.01
	5.63,	4.67,	5.20,	5.27,	5.32,	5.32
ms, cooked	6.21,	6.20,	6.17,	6.18,	6.18,	6.22
om soup, cream of, canned						5.95
	6.20,	6.35,	6.58,	6.85,	6.85,	6.60
l, prepared, com.						3.55
nes	4.18,	3.94,	3.92,	3.97,	3.92,	4.06
s, boiled	6.21,	6.30,	6.08,	6.08,	6.30,	6.50
al (1:8, cooked $\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	6.30,	6.29,	6.28,	6.20,	6.20,	6.60
cooked	6.42,	6.57,	6.42,	6.57,	6.62,	6.31
green					3.38,	4.00
green, ripe						6.80
ripe, processed						6.00
, red	5.32,	5.41,	5.39,	5.39,	5.52,	5.39
, white	5.48,	5.37,	5.50,	5.59,	5.85,	5.71
, yellow	5.32,	5.47,	5.58,	5.42,	5.32,	5.60
, pickled						2.71
s, Fla., "color added," Pinellas County	3.90,	3.60,	3.60,	3.63,	3.67,	3.75
s, Fla., not colored, Phillipi River	3.93,	3.69,	4.34,	3.60,	3.88,	3.97
juice, California	4.19,	3.90,	3.59,	3.85,	3.63,	4.34
juice, Florida	4.15,	3.97,	3.30,	3.58,	3.33,	3.40
marmalade, com.	3.00,	3.20,	3.23,	3.33,	3.16,	3.14
plant, cooked	5.72,	5.80,	5.75,	5.80,	5.75,	5.79
	5.72,	6.10,	6.02,	5.98,	6.17,	5.68
	5.62,	5.72,	5.50,	5.39,	5.50,	5.20
marmalade, com.					4.00,	3.53
	5.82,	5.97,	6.03,	5.90,	5.62,	5.78
os, cooked	5.45,	5.50,	5.65,	5.40,	5.60,	5.61
a Fruit Nectar (pulp, juice, fruit acids,						2.80
r, water), Hawaii						5.90
e foie, American	4.05,	3.39,	3.50,	3.30,	3.62,	3.55
s					3.55,	3.72
s, cooked with sugar						3.32
s, frozen	3.30,	3.30,	3.28,	3.35,	3.27,	3.32
s, canned	3.80,	3.74,	3.73,	3.82,	3.75,	3.70
Nectar (pulp, juice, sugar, water), com.						4.03
butter						6.28
Bartlett	4.08,	4.00,	4.00,	3.69,	3.67,	3.49
Royal Riviera, Oregon			4.48,	4.64,	4.40,	4.35
sickle, cooked with sugar	4.21,	4.20,	4.09,	4.05,	4.04,	4.09

Item.	pH				
	4.07	4.03	4.03	4.06	4.07
Pears, canned					
<i>Pear Nectar</i> (pulp, juice, sugar, water), com.					
Pea soup, cream of, canned					
Peas, cooked	6.88	6.61	6.83	6.22	6.85
Peas, frozen, cooked				6.02	6.85
Peas, canned	6.00	5.90	5.85	5.71	5.81
Peas, puréed, Stokely	4.90	5.72	5.85	5.72	5.75
Peas, strained, Clapp	5.91	6.10	5.97	6.12	6.08
Peas, dried (split green), cooked	6.80	6.50	6.53	6.49	6.41
Peas, dried (split yellow), cooked	6.62	6.50	6.47	6.45	6.41
<i>Pep</i>	5.85	5.39	5.45	4.49	4.82
Peppers, green	5.23	5.20	5.93	5.48	5.58
Persimmons	5.42	5.50	5.81	5.55	5.78
<i>Pettijohn's</i> (1:8, cooked $\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	6.29	6.29	6.30	6.26	6.25
Pimento, canned					
Pineapple	3.38	3.62	3.27	3.20	3.64
Pineapple, canned	3.42	3.50	3.47	3.42	3.40
Pineapple juice, canned	3.37	3.50	3.52	3.50	3.55
Plums, blue	3.39	2.86	2.78	3.10	2.95
Plums, Damson	3.08	3.00	2.90	3.00	3.10
Plums, green gage	3.60	3.95	3.62	4.23	4.29
Plums, green gage, canned	3.29	3.22	3.26	3.22	3.22
Plums, red	4.95	3.62	4.02	5.28	3.78
Plums, yellow	4.45	4.12	4.15	4.18	4.63
Plums, frozen	3.29	3.22	3.42	3.30	3.32
Plums, spiced, com.					
<i>Plum Nectar</i> (pulp, juice, sugar, water), com.					
Pollack, filet, broiled				6.72	6.81
Pomegranate	3.00	3.10	3.03	2.98	2.93
Porgy, broiled	6.47	6.43	6.49	6.43	6.40
Pork chop, broiled					6.53
Pork tenderloin, fresh, baked					6.83
Potatoes, see Table 62.					
Prunes, dried, stewed	3.84	3.92	3.72	3.72	3.76
Prunes, chopped, Clapp	3.68	3.68	3.65	3.64	3.75
Prunes, puréed, Stokely	3.82	3.83	4.00	3.63	3.60
Prunes, strained, Clapp	3.68	3.83	3.68	3.68	3.75
Prune juice, home-made	3.97	3.96	3.97	3.95	3.95
Prune juice, com.					3.78
<i>Puffed Rice</i>	6.27	6.40	6.27	6.34	6.34
<i>Puffed Wheat</i>	5.61	5.58	5.77	5.70	5.32
Quince, fresh, stewed	3.37	3.12	3.16	3.20	3.20
Quince jelly, com.					3.70
Radishes, red	5.85	5.90	6.05	5.98	6.04
Radishes, white	5.58	5.61	5.69	5.57	5.52
Raisins, seedless				4.10	3.80
<i>Ralston</i> (1:8, cooked $\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	6.19	6.21	6.24	6.35	6.30
Raspberries, California	3.70	3.88	3.91	3.62	3.93
Raspberries, New Jersey	3.72	3.50	3.50	3.74	3.82
Raspberries, frozen	3.22	3.18	3.21	3.20	3.26
Raspberry jam, com.	2.87	3.06	3.07	3.10	3.17
Red pepper relish, com.					3.62
Rhubarb, California, stewed	3.27	3.34	3.26	3.24	3.27
Rice, brown, cooked	6.25	6.42	6.47	6.60	6.70
Rice, white, cooked	6.50	6.68	6.15	6.20	6.00
Rice, wild, cooked	6.08	6.23	6.30	6.33	6.47
<i>Rice Krispies</i>	5.70	5.73	5.42	5.60	5.40
Rolls, white				5.52	5.52
Romaine	5.90	5.78	5.98	5.92	6.06
Salmon, fresh, boiled					6.81
Salmon, fresh, broiled					6.38
Salmon, red Alaska, canned	6.17	6.07	6.07	6.10	6.16
Sardines, Portuguese, in olive oil	5.72	5.42	5.77	5.79	5.93
<i>Saltines</i>	6.89	6.05	6.00	6.80	6.70
Sauerkraut, cooked	3.50	3.45	3.46	3.45	3.47
Sausage, pan-broiled					6.74

Item.	pH						
th, com.							5.92
sautéd	5.90,	5.90,	5.87,	5.87,	5.70,		5.83
cooked	5.60,	5.70,	5.62,	5.60,	5.53,		5.60
raspberry, com.							3.69
Walston	5.50,	5.49,	5.50,	5.53,	5.32,		5.60
Wheat	6.05,	6.05,	6.38,	6.20,	6.18,		6.49
oiled	7.39,	7.40,	7.19,	7.41,	7.79,		7.45
sautéd	6.67,	6.76,	6.87,	6.90,	6.76,		6.86
akers	6.83,	5.65,	6.40,	7.08,	7.32,		7.08
	3.27,	2.98,	3.20,	3.13,	3.13,		3.01
oked	3.60,	3.72,	3.78,	3.80,	3.65,		3.49
e, Chinese					4.70,		4.30
, cooked	6.40,	6.40,	6.17,	6.27,	5.97,		6.27
cooked	7.10,	7.18,	6.60,	6.60,	6.60,		6.65
frozen, cooked	6.52,	6.37,	6.47,	6.33,	6.30,		6.35
chopped, Clapp	5.52,	5.52,	5.51,	5.52,	5.38,		5.40
puréed, Stokely	5.50,	5.98,	6.22,	5.75,	5.78,		5.78
strained, Clapp	5.70,	5.70,	5.70,	5.70,	5.63,		5.63
frumenti							4.15
acorn, cooked	5.61,	5.69,	6.12,	6.49,	5.65,		5.18
Hubbard, cooked	6.15,	6.12,	6.15,	6.00,	6.20,		6.05
white, cooked	5.52,	5.58,	5.70,	5.60,	5.58,		5.70
yellow summer, cooked	5.94,	5.79,	6.00,	5.98,	5.85,		5.88
berries, California	3.32,	3.50,	3.49,	3.49,	3.45,		3.33
berries, frozen	3.32,	3.27,	3.22,	3.22,	3.25,		3.21
erry jam, com.	3.00,	3.40,	3.33,	3.36,	3.40,		3.36
heads broiled					6.70,		6.60
hard, cooked	6.78,	6.28,	6.25,	6.25,	6.30,		6.17
nes	4.48,	4.43,	3.93,	4.47,	3.97,		3.32
es	4.22,	4.75,	4.32,	4.35,	3.99,		4.19
es, local, vine-ripened	4.45,	4.17,	4.17,	4.08,	4.12,		4.02
es, canned	4.28,	4.10,	4.14,	4.14,	4.14,		4.23
es, strained, Clapp	4.18,	4.13,	4.13,	4.13,	4.12,		4.12
o juice, canned	4.10,	4.11,	4.14,	4.14,	4.28,		4.28
o paste, Italian							4.12
o purée, com.	4.10,	4.17,	4.10,	4.10,	4.19,		4.10
o soup, cream of, canned							4.62
e, smoked, boiled					6.28,		5.90
sea, sautéd	6.32,	6.30,	6.33,	6.20,	6.27,		6.23
ish, canned	6.10,	6.10,	5.92,	6.12,	6.02,		6.00
o greens, cooked	5.91,	5.96,	6.30,	6.21,	6.25,		6.17
es, white, cooked	5.82,	5.76,	5.85,	5.65,	5.64,		5.85
es, yellow, cooked	5.73,	5.75,	5.70,	5.82,	5.67,		5.57
y, roasted	6.80,	6.43,	5.90,	5.72,	7.00,		6.63
op, broiled					6.12,		5.90
utlet, breaded					6.80,		5.90
idneys, broiled					6.60,		6.48
oasted					6.99,		6.74
ble soup, canned							5.16
ble soup, chopped, Clapp	5.00,	5.00,	5.00,	5.00,	5.00,		5.00
ble soup, strained, Clapp	5.00,	5.00,	5.00,	5.00,	4.99,		4.99
elli, cooked	6.50,	6.20,	6.33,	6.40,	5.80,		5.93
r, cider							3.12
ts, English							5.42
eres	5.88,	5.89,	5.89,	6.10,	5.90,		6.18
melon	5.30,	5.25,	5.60,	5.18,	5.38,		5.29
Krispies	5.42,	5.62,	4.99,	4.99,	5.01,		4.95
ena (1:8, cooked $\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	5.85,	5.85,	5.80,	6.06,	6.03,		6.06
es					5.00,		5.09
dershire sauce	3.63,	3.63,	3.67,	3.63,	3.63,		3.65
cooked	6.81,	5.79,	5.80,	5.80,	5.97,		6.55
Fleischmann's							5.65
berries, frozen	3.10,	3.00,	3.05,	3.07,	3.09,		3.00
ni, cooked	5.79,	5.15,	6.10,	6.00,	5.89,		5.99
ck					4.94,		4.84
					4.84,		4.90

TABLE 63.—pH of Reciped Foods and Soda Fountain Items.*

Item.	
Barley soup	5.30
Bisque tortoni	4.20
Blanc mange	6.00
Bread pudding, plain	6.40
Bread pudding, chocolate	5.80
Broth, beef, clear	5.54
Broth, beef, with rice	6.10
Broth, chicken	6.20
Broth, G. Washington's Aces	6.00
Butterscotch sauce	5.20
Cake, plain	6.00
Celery, creamed	6.00
Celery soup, cream of	6.00
Cheese Fondue	5.30
Cheese rarebit	5.08
Chocolate sauce	5.40
Chow mein, beef	5.30
Chocolate beverage ($\frac{2}{3}$ milk and $\frac{1}{3}$ cream)	6.28
Chocolate beverage (condensed milk)	6.00
Cider, sweet, com.	3.30
Cider, sweet, Sterling, sparkling	3.52
Clam chowder, Manhattan	5.20
Club soda, "supercharged"	4.20
Boiled to remove CO ₂	7.50
Cocoa beverage	6.45
Cocoa cream, Hoffman	4.90
Coca Cola, bottled, N. Y. C.	2.40, 2.65, 2.30, 2.56, 2.60, 2.58
Coca Cola, fountain:	
Plain	2.40
With fresh lemon	2.30
Plain	2.62
With fresh lemon	2.42
Lemon juice used	2.28
Coffee, clear	4.83, 4.74, 4.83, 5.04, 4.78, 4.80
Coffee, clear	4.97
With 20% cream	5.62
With milk	6.00
With evaporated milk	6.00
Coffee, clear	5.00
With 40% cream	5.23
Coffee, Barrington Hall (soluble):	
Clear	5.40
With cream	5.90
Clear	5.30
With cream	5.30
Clear	5.40
With condensed milk	6.20
Coffee, G. Washington's Aces (soluble):	
Clear	5.20
With cream	5.70
Clear	5.20
With milk	6.00
Clear	5.10
With condensed milk	6.10
Coffee, Sanka	5.40
Corned beef hash (with potatoes)	5.20
Corn soup, cream of	6.10
Custard, baked	6.75, 6.80, 6.70
Eggnog	6.80
Eggs, omelette	7.70

* Bridges and Mattice: Am. Jour. Digest. Dis., 7, 440, 1939.

tem.	pH
abled (milk and butter)	7.23, 7.34
unks:	
ate	
erry	6.33, 6.33
erry, Canada Dry	5.82
plain mix (tested at Horton plant)	2.75, 2.71, 2.76, 2.78, 2.78, 2.68
chocolate mix (tested at Horton)	6.68
	6.42
na	6.00
raspberry	5.08, 5.15, 5.25
nel pecan	6.18
x	6.18, 6.13, 6.11, 6.12, 6.05, 6.16
late	6.42, 6.59, 6.68, 6.49, 6.88
n	6.23
n	6.58
berry	5.42, 5.32, 5.60, 5.67
la	6.05, 6.34, 6.25, 6.40, 6.53
sodas:	
olate	5.62, 5.80
ee (whipped cream)	5.88
apple (no milk)	4.85
wberry, plain	4.75
Same with milk	5.20
rry	3.08
uge	2.82
everage, Hoffman	2.82
ie	2.75, 2.70
	2.56
Milk, chocolate	6.48
Milk, chocolate (thick)	6.52
Milk, chocolate, with egg	6.70
bran	6.52
m soup, cream of	6.20
soup	6.07
ade	3.82, 3.85
ange juice base	3.75
Vanti	3.05, 3.17
p, cream of	6.17
p, split green	6.05, 6.00
ola	2.20
, beverage	5.52
, beverage, clear	5.42
th 20% cream	6.03
th evaporated milk	6.17
th milk	6.23
, beverage, clear	5.35
th 40% cream	6.20
s, Idaho, baked (with butter)	6.20, 6.40, 5.82, 6.03, 5.88, 5.90
s, Irish, baked (with butter)	5.23, 5.62, 6.30, 5.78, 6.02, 5.80
s, Irish, baked (with milk)	5.90, 5.98, 5.90, 5.92, 6.15, 6.18
s, Irish, boiled	5.58, 5.65, 5.91, 5.80, 6.02, 5.28
s, Irish, boiled (with milk)	6.03, 6.00, 5.93, 6.08, 6.22, 5.70
s, Irish, mashed (with milk and butter)	5.83, 5.93, 5.90, 5.90, 5.80, 5.89
s, sweet, baked (with butter)	5.35, 5.31, 5.29, 6.20, 5.70
s, sweet, boiled (with butter)	6.00, 5.88, 6.04, 5.98, 6.12, 5.98
s, sweet, canned	5.10
dding	6.41, 6.30, 6.50
eer, Canada Dry	4.40
dressing	4.08
rilla	4.38
Scotch style	7.03
soup, cream of	6.21
nd, brewed	2.75, 2.60, 2.82, 2.79, 2.78

Item.		
Tapioca pudding, caramel		
Tea, Orange Pekoe type (weak)	6.97, 6.83, 5.30, 5.62, 6.10	
Tea, Orange Pekoe type (medium)	6.54, 6.43, 5.27, 5.18, 6.27	
Tea, Orange Pekoe type (strong)	5.76, 5.90, 5.13, 4.98, 6.20	
Tea, clear		
With lemon		
With 40% cream		
Tea, clear		
With lemon		
With 20% cream		
With evaporated milk		
With milk		
Tomato soup, cream of		
Vegetable soup		5.49
Vegetable and barley soup		4.3
Vegetable-okra soup		5.3
Water, Kalak		5.35, 5.46, 5.35, 5.28, 5.50
Water, Sparkling, Canada Dry		4.90, 4.76, 4.36, 4.22, 4.3
Water, "White Rock"		

Although difference in pH might be expected from sample to sample of the same item, remarkably little is encountered. For instance, the pH of Welsh rarebit removed from the hospital dining room was found to be 5.04 and nine months later a similar item was pH 5.08. Also, two bottles of grape juice of different brands both rated pH 3 and 3.05, 3.06 on dilution 1:1 with water, the test being conducted over a year apart. These and similar observations would point to considerable consistency in the reaction of food, unless, of course, spoilage occurs.

Acid Activity.—Unfortunately acid concentration when directly expressed involves mathematical forms which are confusing to the uninitiated because of the smallness of the value stated. The term pH, has become increasingly popular without many who use it being aware of its real nature. One is dealing with the logarithmic function of the hydrogen-ion concentration, not with some simple arithmetic value easy to compare. To remedy this difficulty conversion tables follow and the name *Acid Activity* is given to the new term. It must be stressed that the term has no meaning with reference to these or any other data except as specifically stated. If the *Acid Activity* is multiplied by 10^{-7} (that is, 0.000 000 1) the result will approximate hydrogen-ion concentration in gram equivalents per liter.

To conserve space, Table 64 presents data only at 0.1 pH interval. Where closer readings are desired, Table 65 shows the variations encountered with changes of 0.01 pH. Since the "whole number" in the pH value designates merely the position of the decimal point, the corresponding *acid activity* can be obtained by using the numerical sequence in Table 65 and placing the decimal as indicated in Table 64. For example, *acid activity* for a sample of plum juice at pH 4.32 is desired. The 4 is ignored and the 32 is found in Table 65 under 6.32 as equivalent to 4.786. Since pH 4.32 lies between 4.3 and 4.4 which are 501.2 and 398.1 respectively, its *acid activity* becomes 478.6 or approximately 480.

TABLE 64.—Acid Activity* Over pH Range of Foods Reported†

Acid activity.	pH	Acid activity.	pH.	Acid activity.
0.010	6.6	2.51	4.2	631.0
0.013	6.5	3.16	4.1	794.4
0.016	6.4	3.98	4.0	1,000.0
0.020	6.3	5.01	3.9	1,259.0
0.025	6.2	6.31	3.8	1,585.0
0.032	6.1	7.94	3.7	1,995.0
0.040	6.0	10.00	3.6	2,512.0
0.050	5.9	12.59	3.5	3,162.0
0.063	5.8	15.85	3.4	3,981.0
0.079	5.7	19.95	3.3	5,012.0
0.100	5.6	25.12	3.2	6,310.0
0.126	5.5	31.62	3.1	7,944.0
0.159	5.4	39.81	3.0	10,000.0
0.200	5.3	50.12	2.9	12,590.0
0.251	5.2	63.10	2.8	15,850.0
0.316	5.1	79.44	2.7	19,950.0
0.398	5.0	100.00	2.6	25,120.0
0.501	4.9	125.90	2.5	31,620.0
0.631	4.8	158.50	2.4	39,810.0
0.794	4.7	199.50	2.3	50,120.0
1.000	4.6	251.20	2.2	63,100.0
1.259	4.5	316.20	2.1	79,440.0
1.585	4.4	398.10	2.0	100,000.0
1.995	4.3	501.20	1.9	125,900.0

* The decimal point of *Acid Activity* is moved seven places to the left, the resultant will be hydrogen-ion concentration (g. per liter).

† Langes and Mattice: *Am. Jour. Digest. Dis.*, 7, 440, 1939.

TABLE 65.—Variation in Acid Activity* Over a pH Unit.†

Acid activity.	pH	Acid activity.	pH	Acid activity.	pH	Acid activity.
1.000	6.75	1.778	6.50	3.162	6.25	5.623
1.023	6.74	1.820	6.49	3.236	6.24	5.754
1.047	6.73	1.862	6.48	3.311	6.23	5.888
1.072	6.72	1.906	6.47	3.389	6.22	6.026
1.097	6.71	1.950	6.46	3.467	6.21	6.166
1.122	6.70	1.995	6.45	3.548	6.20	6.310
1.148	6.69	2.042	6.44	3.631	6.19	6.467
1.175	6.68	2.089	6.43	3.715	6.18	6.607
1.202	6.67	2.138	6.42	3.802	6.17	6.761
1.230	6.66	2.188	6.41	3.890	6.16	6.918
1.259	6.65	2.239	6.40	3.981	6.15	7.080
1.288	6.64	2.291	6.39	4.074	6.14	7.244
1.318	6.63	2.344	6.38	4.169	6.13	7.413
1.349	6.62	2.399	6.37	4.266	6.12	7.586
1.380	6.61	2.455	6.36	4.365	6.11	7.763
1.413	6.60	2.512	6.35	4.467	6.10	7.944
1.446	6.59	2.570	6.34	4.571	6.09	8.128
1.479	6.58	2.630	6.33	4.677	6.08	8.318
1.514	6.57	2.692	6.32	4.786	6.07	8.511
1.549	6.56	2.754	6.31	4.898	6.06	8.710
1.583	6.55	2.818	6.30	5.012	6.05	8.913
1.622	6.54	2.884	6.29	5.129	6.04	9.120
1.660	6.53	2.951	6.28	5.248	6.03	9.333
1.698	6.52	3.020	6.27	5.370	6.02	9.550
1.738	6.51	3.090	6.26	5.495	6.01	9.772

* The decimal point of *Acid Activity* is moved seven places to the left, the resultant will be hydrogen-ion concentration (g. per liter).

† Langes and Mattice: *Am. Jour. Digest. Dis.*, 7, 440, 1939.

To answer a question such as how much more acid is the pH of lime juice than the pH 3.6 of orange juice—From Table 62, it will be seen that lime juice is roughly forty times as acid as orange juice since their *acid activities* are 100,000 and 2512 respectively.

If, then, anyone especially desires to have the "average" pH of any food from the series of determinations offered in Table 62, it will be necessary to compute the *acid activity*, average these numbers, then read back to the corresponding pH. All such data are approximations only.

Organic Acids in Foods.—According to Nelson, many erroneous statements regarding the incidence of specific acids in fruits have been retained in supposedly authoritative works. Malonic acid, for instance, is *not* found in fruits. Oxalic, benzoic, succinic and lactic acids never occur in large quantities. Despite reports to the contrary, Nelson insists that few fruits except the tamarind and grape (including raisins, of course), contain appreciable amounts of tartaric acid.

The two predominating acids in fruits and vegetables are malic and citric. The subsequent table which presents values for the acid components of a few fruits, vegetables, and miscellaneous foods is concerned, therefore, largely with these acids. The acidity of oranges, lemons, grapefruit, limes and most berries is almost entirely due to citric acid. This acid occurs free in tomatoes. Peaches, pears, and apricots contain malic as well as citric acid. Rhubarb, apples, and quinces owe their acidity to malic acid. Probably all the acid in cantaloupe is citric, that in watermelon malic (Bigelow and Dunbar). The "sand" seen in the sap of the sugar maple is calcium malate.

TABLE 66.—Organic Acid Constituents of Foods.*

Food items.	Citric acid, per cent.	Malic acid, per cent.	Other acids
...	0.03	1.02	
s	None	0.27	
golden	None	0.72	
...	None	0.75	
sh	None	0.72	
beauty	None	0.78	
...	Trace	0.50	
transparent	0.02	0.97	
canned	1.06	0.33	
...	0.35	0.81	Trace of oxalic.
s	0.10	0.17	Trace of tartaric.
...	0.11	0.10	
...	None	None	Trace of tartaric.
...	..	0.24	
...	0.15	0.50	
...	0.32	0.37	
...	0.07		
ma	0.65	0.17	
green	0.03	0.13	
...	Trace		
...	0.11	None	
ries	Trace	0.16	Traces of oxalic and suc- cinic, 0.92% isocitric.
ries	1.56	0.10	Trace of oxalic
...	0.21	0.12	
sprouts	0.24	0.20	
e	0.14	0.10	
oupe	..	None	
...	0.09	0.24	
ower	0.21	0.39	
...	0.01	0.17	
s	0.01	1.25	Trace of oxalic, 0.07% succinic, 0.13% lactic
es	None	0.56–1.99	
es, Montmorency, canned	None	1.45	
hardshell, meat	None		
or	None		
...	0.53		
sweet	None	None	
soft shell	None		
berries	1.82	0.46	0.07% benzoic.
berries	1.10	0.26	Benzoic, 0.065%; quinic, 1% (Isham, 1935).
bers	0.01	0.24	
ts	2.30	0.05	Traces of oxalic and suc- cinic.
ts, canned	1.92	0.13	
nt	None	0.17	
...	0.34	Trace	
erry	Present	0.50–2.08	
...	..	0.65	0.43% tartaric.
e, Concord	0.02	0.31	1.07% tartaric.
ruit	1.46		
ruit	1.33	0.08	
...	0.35	0.05	
...	3.84	Trace	
...	6.08	0.29	

taken from Bigelow, W. D., and Dunbar, P. B.: Jour. Ind. Eng. Chem., 9, 17. Nelson, E. K.: Am. Med., 23, N.S., 812, 1928. Hartmann, B. G., and F.: Jour. Assn. Off. Agric. Chem., 17, 522, 1934. The total acidity of fruits with the degree of ripeness and the difference in variety.

TABLE 66.—Organic Acid Constituents of Foods.—*Continued*

Food items.	Citric acid, per cent.	Malic acid, per cent.	Other acids.
Lettuce, head	0.02	0.17	
Loganberries	2.02	0.08	
Canned	1.82	0.33	
Malt	0.13		
Milk, whole	0.16		
Evaporated	0.36		
Milk, powdered, whole	1.30		
Skimmed	1.82		
Mushrooms	None	0.14	
Okra	0.02	0.12	
Onions	0.02	0.17	
Oranges	0.98	Trace	
Oranges, Florida	0.92	0.18	
Oysters, meat	0.03	0.18	
Liquor	None	0.01	
Parsnips	0.13	0.35	
Peaches	0.37	0.37	
Canned	0.05	0.69	
Pears	0.24	0.12	
Pears, Bartlett, canned	0.42	0.16	
Peas, fresh	0.11	0.08	
Persimmons, Japanese	0.09	
Pineapple	0.84	0.12	
Pineapple	0.77	0.12	
Plum	0.36-2.39	
Plum, California	0.03	0.92	
Damson	None	2.48	
Pomegranate	4.52	None	
Potatoes, Idaho	0.51	None	
Potatoes, sweet (Cuban)	0.07	None	
Prunes, Italian style	None	1.44	
Pumpkin	None	0.15	
Quince	None	1.59	
Quince	0.68	Trace of tartaric.
Raspberries, black	1.06		
Black, canned	0.81	0.05	Trace of tartaric.
Red	1.30	0.04	
Red, canned	1.28	0.05	
Rhubarb	0.41	1.77	0.12% oxalic.
Scallops	None		
Shrimps	None		
Spinach	0.08	0.09	
Squash	0.04	0.32	
Strawberries	0.91	0.10	
Strawberries	1.08	0.16	
Tamarind	Trace	0.50	Traces of oxalic and suc- cinic, 7.76% tartaric.
Tomatoes	0.30	0.20	
Tomatoes	0.47	0.05	
Turnips, white	None	0.23	
Watermelon	0.20	
Wheat, bran	0.08		
Wheat-germ	0.34		
Wheat flour (patent)	None		
Whole wheat flour	0.05		
Youngberries, canned	0.62	0.24	
Yeast, dried brewer's	0.30	..	(Sherman, 1936.)

TABLE 67.- The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
		13.6	1
		2.4	1
Kellogg	4.3	..	5
	2.2	..	1
		18.3	5
		12.0	13
		12.4	10
4. salted	13.3	..	1
mpling	0.3	..	5
		4.5	13
		3.7	10
		0.8-1.4	1
		2.3-3.0	5
		2.4	5
fresh, raw		1.1	5
		6.8	8
		8.4	5
		4.8	1
ked		8.5	13
el		6.9	5
		41.9	5
		31.3	13
ked		17.4	5
ot Starch	0.4	..	5
es, French or globe	4.3	..	1
led		7.6	5
alem		10.3	1
iled		8.2	5
rus	1.0	..	1
		0.8	10
d	1.0	..	5
os		10.7	10
raw	5.0	..	13
	4.8-10.7	..	5
ked	10.0	..	13
d	12.9-40.8	..	5
ked	8.6	..	12
o shoots		7.7	14
as		5.6	10
		7.9	5
		4.4	1
pearled	10.4	..	13
	17.5	..	5
	13.8	..	1
ed	6.0	..	5
teamed	15.0	..	5
baked		2.8	5
d, boiled		1.7	5
er, boiled		6.0	5
aw		35.5	5
cot, boiled		5.0	5
aw		25.5	5
a, fresh		14.0	9
ried		41.6	10
ey, canned		3.0	13
y, canned		6.4	13
ried		18.0	9
		23.9	6
, raw		5.4	13
		4.2	1
g		5.4	9
		4.1	1
te	4.3	..	1

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—*Continued.*

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Balance of acids.
Beef, blood	7.8	12
Boiled	25.2	..	9
Clear lean	12.0	..	9
Corned	13.7	..	5
Dried	14.8	..	12
Creamed	1.6	..	13
Heart	9.1	..	13
Juice	2.4	..	14
Lean	23.5	..	1
	13.9	..	10
Liver	10.1	..	13
Loin, med. fat	10.8	..	13
	38.6	..	1
Fat	9.5	..	13
Roast	19.0-23.5	..	5
Medium fat	8.1	..	1
Misc. fat-free cuts	11.5	..	13
Porterhouse	10.9	..	2
Ribs, med. fat	10.5	..	1
Cooked	13.8	..	1
Roast, fat	11.7	..	13
Round, lean	10.6	..	15
Steak	11.0	..	9
Steak, raw	18.5	..	5
Fried	17.3	..	5
Grilled	23.2	..	5
Stewed	28.9	..	5
Topside, boiled	28.9	..	5
Roast	20.4-22.2	..	5
Beef stew with pastry crust	8.8	..	5
With vegetables	2.0	13
Beer	0.3	..	1
Beets	10.9	10
		11.4	1
Boiled	8.9	5
Biscuit, baking powder	4.3	..	13
Blackberries	7.1	1
		8.4	5
Stewed	4.2	5
Blanc mange	2.3	5
Blueberry juice	2.8	14
Bologna	9.3	..	13
Bovril	51.0	5
Brains, calf, boiled	20.7	..	5
Sheep, boiled	17.7	..	5
Brazil nuts	10.9	..	1
		4.5	5
Bread, graham	6.8	..	13
Pumpernickel	4.3	1
Rye	6.8	..	13
Fine	2.6	..	12
Whole	6.0	..	12
White	2.7	..	6
	1.5	..	5
Fine	6.7	..	12
(Milk)	7.1	..	13
(Water)	6.0	..	9
	7.1	..	13
Whole wheat	7.3	..	13
	5.9	..	5
	3.0	..	6
Broccoli	3.6-4.9	3
Tops, boiled	4.3	5

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
prouts	4.3	1
st, refined	0.8	5
.. . . .	7.3	..	1
.. . . .	3.8	..	1
.. . . .	0.4	..	5
.. . . .	4.3	..	1
k	2.2	13
..	1.3	1
..	6.0	9
..	4.3	10
..	8.2	12
, boiled	1.4	5
, boiled	4.9	5
, red	2.2	1
..	5.6	5
, Savoy	2.7	1
ed	2.8	5
plate	3.6	..	13
.. . . .	2.9	..	5
nut	1.1	..	5
nt	0.6	5
rbread	8.7	5
.. . . .	4.3	..	13
re	10.7	..	5
upe	7.5	5, 9
ooked	19.5	..	1
een moss, dried	113.0*	..	5
..	10.8	10
..	9.5	1
raw	9.0	5
boiled	4.4	5
ng, boiled	5.9	5
ower	5.3	10
..	3.0	1
..	1.4	3
ed	1.7	5
.. . . .	11.6	..	1
ac, boiled	8.8	5
, raw	8.4	5
..	7.8	10
nched	11.1	1
ves and stalks	2.5	1
, boiled	5.0	5
..	15.8	9
..	24.6	14
e, cheddar	5.5	..	13
.. . . .	5.4	..	5
tage (Skim milk)	4.5	..	1
am (English)	3.4	..	5
gonzola	0.3	..	5
yère	17.5	..	1
..	3.6	5
d	19.8	..	1
mesan	2.1	..	1
..	5.1	5
on	7.8	..	5
es, black	2.6	1
é	1.7	5
..	2.1	1
..	6.1	13
ewed	2.9	5
et	2.7	1
..	7.3	5

er to page 123.

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—(Continued)

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	
Cherry juice	4.4	
Chestnuts	7.4	
		9.6	
		11.3	
Chicken, boiled	20.7		
Broiler	10.8		
Fat	24.3		
Fowl, raw	9.6		
Stewed	13.7		
Roast	25.4		
Salad	0.7		
Chicory (coffee substitute)	7.2	
Chicory, white	2.3	
		4.1	
Chives, leaves	8.3	
		12.6	
Chocolate	8.1		
		7.9	
Milk	8.4	
Chocolate blanc mange	1.4	
		2.6	
Chutney, apple	4.6	
Tomato	5.3	
Cider, apple	4.4	
Grape (unfermented)	5.2	
Citron	9.8	
Citron, fresh unripe	6.9	
Citron, preserved	8.3	
Cocoa, beverage	2.9	
Powder	0.7	
Cocoanut	7.0	
		4.9	
Shredded	4.2	
		4.1	
Dried	8.5	
Cocoanut milk	7.5	
Cod, fresh	5.5		
Steamed	16.2		
Fried	15.6		
Grilled	21.8		
Roe, fried	38.8		
Baked in vinegar	40.0		
Codfish, salt, raw	12.6		
Cooked	21.0		
Coffee, roasted	63.4	
		5.6	
Beverage	0	
Cookies:			
Chocolate drop	0.6		
Hermit	3.0		
Sugar, plain	0.5		
Corn, green	1.8		
Sweet	1.8		
Dried	6.0		
Corn cake (Johnny cake)	4.1		
Corn Flakes	5.4		
	2.0		
Cornmeal	6.5		
Yellow, raw	5.4		
Cooked	1.0		
Cornstarch	0.0	0.0	
Blanc mange	1.6	

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
ed	0.8	1
ed	39.5	..	5
.	7.8	..	10
.	5.3	..	5
.	8.5	..	13
.	8.2	..	13
.	8.2	..	13
es*	3.2	5
.	3.2	1
.	1.9	5
.	0.6	13
.	0.4	13
Wheat	10.2	..	12
rs, fresh	31.5	1
.	3.2	5
.	7.9	9
juice, red	4.9	14
, red	1.1	1
.	6.3	14
.	5.9	5
wed	4.3	5
.	3.2	1
.	8.8	5
wed	6.1	5
e	4.4	1
.	6.1	5
.	0.7	13
.	5.8	13
.	21.8	5
d, baked	0.5	..	5
d	0.5	..	5
d apple	9.7	14
.	11.9	5
ns	8.2	5
ion greens	17.5	1
en	15.0	14
.	11.0	9
.	12.4	5
.	5.5	1
h, fried	20.5	..	5
nuts	7.3	..	13
.	1.7	..	5
ng, meat or poultry	1.7	..	13
ng, beef	1.1	..	5
roast	24.4	..	5
ing	1.4	5
.	7.0	..	1
.	9.9	..	10
red	8.5	..	5
hole	11.1	..	10
.	24.5	..	1
.	16.2	..	5
oiled	16.2	..	5
ied	16.5	..	5
ached	19.7	..	5
rambled	12.5	..	5
hite	4.8	..	13
.	5.0	..	5
.	5.2	..	10
.	8.3	..	1
.	25.3	..	13
.	33.2	..	5
.	23.7	..	10
.	41.8	..	1

h alkaline *in vitro*, partly acid *in vivo*.

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—*Continued.*

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Number of grams.
Eggnog	10.0	..	1
Eggplant	4.5	5
Endive	14.5	1
		5.4	5
French	2.3	1
Farina, raw	9.6	..	12
Cooked	1.6	..	12
Figs, dried	100.9	13
		10.0	2
		36.1	5
		27.8	1
Stewed	20.5	5
Filberts	2.1	..	1
Fish paste	10.3	..	5
Flounder, steamed	19.7	..	5
Fried	13.9	..	5
Flour:			
Buckwheat	6.9	..	13
Corn	0.6	5
Graham	11.2	..	13
Rye	11.3	..	1
White	9.6	..	13
	7.4	..	5
Wheat	11.6	..	10
Coarse	2.7	..	1
Entire	12.0	..	9
Whole	12.2	..	13
	3.4	..	5
Force	3.8	..	5
Frankfurters	10.2	..	13
Frogs' legs	15.8	..	1
	10.6	..	10
Fruit salad, canned	3.3	5
Fudge, chocolate	0.4	13
Gelatin dessert, lemon	0.5	13
Ginger, ground	21.6	5
Gingerbread	8.7	5
		17.0	13
Goose	24.5	..	12
Young	7.7	..	13
Roast	21.8	..	5
Gooseberries	7.6	1
		3.3	14
Green, raw	4.1	5
Stewed	2.1	5
Ripe	3.7	5
Gooseberry juice	4.3	14
Grapes	2.7	13
Black	7.2	5
White	6.0	5
Grape juice	3.9	13
Grapefruit	6.4	5
Grapenuts	1.4	5
Gravy, meat stock	7.0	..	13
Greengages	7.7	5
Grouse, roast	25.8	..	5
Guava	7.7	14
Guinea-fowl, roast	26.3	..	5
Haddock	8.5	..	11
	16.1	..	10
Steamed	17.7	..	5
Fried	14.0	..	5

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
smoked, steamed	19.7	..	5
amed	12.7	..	5
	14.8	..	5
	9.4	..	13
	9.2	..	11
d	18.6	..	5
led	10.0	..	13
lean	12.5	..	13
d, med. fat	8.3	..	13
	9.7	..	2
	7.0	..	1
raw	7.6	..	5
ed	16.2-22.3	..	5
ast	30.0	..	5
	28.1	..	5
	2.6	..	13
ts	2.1	..	1
	3.9	..	5
sheep, roast	27.6	..	5
, fresh	12.7	..	1
	17.4	..	1
ed	10.0	..	11
	21.9	..	5
d in vinegar	23.8	..	5
fried	66.2	..	5
comb	1.1	..	5
ned	..	0.6	5
dark:			
verage	..	2.1	4
ickwheat	..	0.4	4
atsclaw	..	1.9	4
oldenrod	..	1.1	4
fixed flowers	..	4.6	4
ulip-popular	..	2.7	4
y, light:			
verage	..	1.0	4
mesquite	..	3.2	4
range	..	0.5	4
age	..	0.6	4
sweet clover	..	0.4	4
upelo	..	0.8	4
White clover	..	0.7	4
radish	..	5.8	5
	..	2.7	1
meat	6.9	..	1
berries	1.4	..	1
Toi (N. Y. C.)	..	14.3	14
eam, vanilla	..	0.5	13
	..	5.3	5
Fruit with edible seeds	..	3.8	5
ne fruit*	..	2.8	5
oll	..	0.5	5
	..	4.0	12
	..	17.0	14
	..	8.3-12.7	3
y, sheep, raw	15.7	..	5
ried	31.0	..	5
raw	15.3	..	5
tewed	30.3	..	5
l	8.4	..	13
abi	..	6.0	1

* Plums are acidifying.

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—*Continued*

Food items.	Degree of acidity.	Degree of alkalinity.	Source of data.
Lamb, chops	9.3	..	12
Roast	10.7	..	12
Lard	1.6	..	5
	4.4	..	1
Leeks, bulbs	7.3	1
Boiled	5.5	5
Leaves	11.3	1
Lemonade	0.4	5
Lemons	5.5	10
	..	9.9	1
Incl. skin	8.5	5
Lemon juice	4.1	9
	..	3.8	5
Lentils, dried	5.2	..	13
	..	2.0	5
	17.8	..	1
Boiled	0.4	5
Lettuce	7.4	10
	..	14.1	1
	..	6.5	3
	..	6.3	14
	..	3.8	5
Lima, <i>see</i> Beans.			
Liver, beef, raw	10.1	..	13
calves', raw	9.4	..	13
	14.7	..	1
Raw	23.6	..	5
Calves', fried	49.5	..	5
Ox, fried	46.9	..	5
Lobster, boiled	38.4	..	5
Loganberries	7.4	5
Canned	2.5	5
Lotus, fresh	9.0	14
Macaroni, raw	9.6	..	13
	5.1	..	1
	3.8	..	5
Cooked	1.7	..	13
	1.2	..	5
Macaroni and cheese	2.1	13
	..	0.1	5
Mackerel	9.3	..	13
Fried	12.7	..	5
Mangos	5.0	14
Margarine	1.3	..	5
	7.3	..	1
Marmalade, orange	10.0	13
	..	2.8	5
Marmite (vegex)	17.1	5
Maté, dry leaves	25.5	1
Mayonnaise	1.4	..	13
Meat extracts	19.9-50.7	..	1
Meat paste	9.6	..	5
Milk:			
Skim	1.8	13
	..	2.9	5
Condensed	10.9	5
Top	1.2	13
Whole	1.8	13
	..	2.4	10
	..	2.7	5
	..	4.2	12

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
ole:			
ensed	..	4.5	13
		8.4	5
erated	..	4.6	13
i	..	21.6	5
at	..	12.2	5
	..	59.4	13
eachle.			
(1 egg)	4.5	..	13
ms	..	4.0	9
		1.8	1
		4.0	5
	1.6	..	5
elon	..	7.5	10
, boiled	28.7	..	5
	30.8	..	5
d and cress	2.3	..	5
, chops, raw	4.5-12.1	..	5
ed	6.2-16.6	..	5
illed	8.0-17.0	..	5
	9.6	..	2
illed	22.5	..	5
east	19.9	..	5
. fat	20.3	..	1
g and neck, stewed	20.3	..	5
ines	..	6.2	5
es	5.1	..	1
al, raw	12.9	..	10
	13.2	..	5
ked	2.0	..	13
ridge	1.5	..	5
al cookies	0.6	..	5
hulled	10.0	..	12
	..	4.5	1
oil	..	< 0.1	5
s, green	..	41.1	13
		45.0	9
		47.2	8
ttled in brine	3.8	..	5
ette	10.2	..	5
eeese	14.0	..	5
is	..	1.5	13
		0.5	5
led	..	0.2	5
ed	..	1.6	5
d	1.1	..	1
ing, raw	..	8.4	5
zes	..	5.6	10
		6.1	5
		9.6	1
ge juice	..	4.5	9
		4.5	5
ne	..	8.5	5
ongue	10.6	..	1
ubes	..	63.5	5
ers	15.0	..	9
	14.4	..	5
ids and liquor	10.3	..	1
akes	1.8	..	5
mps	..	11.9	9
		6.6	1
		7.5	5
illed	..	6.7	5
idge, roast	27.9	..	5
on fruit	..	8.5	5

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—*Continued.*

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Reaction of ash.
Pastry	4.4	..	13
Flaky, baked	4.6	..	5
Short, baked	5.4	..	5
Peaches	5.0	10
		5.4	1
		6.1	5
Canned	3.8	5
Dried	12.1	5
Stewed	4.1	5
Peanuts	3.9	..	10
	11.6	..	5
	16.4	..	1
Peanut butter	4.4	..	13
Pears	3.3	1
		3.6	9
Eating	3.4	5
Cooking	2.2	5
Stewed	1.5	5
Canned	2.6	5
Peas, fresh	1.3	9
	2.3	..	1
		5.2	12
		1.2	5
Boiled	1.4	..	5
Canned	2.9	..	5
		1.3	13
Dried	5.0	9
		7.1	10
		10.3	5
Boiled	1.2	5
Split, dried	7.7	5
Boiled	0.5	..	5
Yellow	3.4	..	1
Pepper (condiment)	28.9	5
Perch	6.3	..	2
Pheasant, roast	21.6	..	5
Pies:			
Apple	1.6	13
	0.3	..	5
Cream	1.4	..	13
Custard	2.1	..	5
Gooseberry	0.4	5
Mince	1.2	5
Rhubarb	4.8	5
Pigeon, boiled	25.7	..	5
Roast	29.1	..	5
Pig's blood	4.9	12
Pike	11.8	..	10
	2.8	..	1
Sea, fresh	19.5	..	12
Pineapple, fresh	6.8	13
		3.6	1
		7.0	5
Canned	2.2	5
Plaice, fried	21.4	..	5
Steamed	18.4	..	5
Plums*	4.8	5
Pollack, fried	9.9	..	5
Steamed	12.4	..	5
Pomegranate juice	3.5	5
Poppy seeds	31.5	1

* Ash alkaline *in vitro*, partly acid *in vivo*.

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
meats, lean	10.0	..	13
meat	7.7-18.7	..	5
meat	11.9	..	10
meat	28.6	..	5
meat	14.6-17.0	..	5
meat, smoked, lean, cooked	27.4	..	5
meat	8.3	..	13
meat	12.5	..	1
meat	9.9	..	1
meat	6.4	..	13
meat	2.5	..	5
meat	3.6	..	5
meat	2.1	1
meat	2.9	..	5
meat, sweet, raw	6.7	9
meat	7.9	13
meat	5.0	5
meat	7.0	9
meat	7.3	12
meat	10.3	5
meat	10.0	13
meat	12.4	5
meat, new	7.2	5
meat	5.3	5
meat	18.0	13
meat	19.6	5
meat	4.5	13
meat	7.2	13
meat	6.0	13
meat	5.1	5
meat	12.8	5
meat	6.0	13
meat starch	0.3	1
meat pear	6.7	14
meat*	20.3	5
meat	7.8	5
meats:			
meat	1.7	5
meat	2.8	5
meatolina	1.7	5
meatoca	2.4	5
meat Rice	9.0	..	13
meat Wheat	11.0	..	13
meat kin	7.8	5
meat	1.5	9
meat	0.3	1
meat Oats	17.6	..	1
meat juice	3.7	14
meat	4.9	5
meat	14.8	..	10
meat	22.4	..	1
meat	20.1	..	5
meat, red	2.9	10
meat	6.1	1
meat	7.2	5
meat	3.1	1
meat	23.7	10
meat	27.0	5
meat berries	5.3	1
meat	6.1	5
meat	4.1	5

meat alkaline *in vitro*, partly acid *in vivo*.

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—*Continued.*

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity	Reaction
Raspberry juice	4.9	10
		0.5	1
Rhubarb, fresh	8.6	13
		8.9	1
		13.0	5
Stewed	9.1	5
Rice, white	9.0	..	9
	8.1	..	10
	7.6	..	5
	5.7	..	12
Boiled	2.6	..	5
	2.5	..	13
Rice pudding	1.7	5
With raisins	1.5	..	13
Rice starch	3.2	..	1
Romaine	7.0	1
Rusk	5.9	5
Rutabagas	8.5	9
Rye	11.3	..	1
<i>Ryvita</i>	2.5	..	5
Sago	1.3	..	5
Salad dressing, boiled	1.9	..	13
Salmon, fresh	11.0	..	13
	8.3	..	1
Steamed	16.2	..	5
Canned	20.1	..	5
	10.8	..	13
Salsify, boiled	2.9	5
Sapodilla, Cuban	4.8	14
Sardines	11.4	..	13
Canned	26.5	..	5
Sauerkraut	5.7	13
Sausage, beef, fried	12.9	..	5
Black	4.4	..	5
Breakfast	2.0	..	5
Pork, raw	2.5	..	5
	6.4	..	13
Fried	3.6	..	5
Scallops, steamed	36.2	..	5
Scones (with egg)	2.6	..	5
(Without egg)	0.4	5
Sea-kale, boiled	1.0	..	5
Semolina	6.7	..	5
Shellfish	19.5	..	1
Shepherd's pie	1.4	..	5
Shortbread	4.6	..	5
<i>Shredded Wheat</i>	12.2	..	13
	5.7	..	5
Shrimps, cooked	1.6	..	5
Smelts	12.0	..	11
Fried	3.9	5
Sole	16.9	..	5
Fried	15.5	..	5
Sorghum	0.8	..	1
Soups:			
Cream of pea	0.9	13
Tomato	2.7	13
Potato	0.1	..	5
Vegetable	0.7	13
Soursop, Cuban	6.3	14
Soy bean, said to be highly alkaline.			
Soy sprouts	16.4	14

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
	9.6	..	13
	2.1	..	13
	..	27.0	8
	..	13.1	12
	..	5.1	1
	..	11.9-21.8	3
	..	39.6	5
dried	8.5	..	5
d, grilled	16.9	..	5
beans, boiled	..	4.3	5
Hubbard	..	2.8	13
e Beef.
d kidney pie	14.0	..	5
ries	..	3.5	5
	..	1.8	1
a, steamed	26.1	..	5
	0.6	..	5
ect	..	9.4	1
ara	..	3.3	5
brown (Barbados)	..	60.0	12
ed white	..	< 0.1	5
cabbage, <i>see</i> Hung-toi.
raw	..	4.9	5
d	..	2.6	5
reads, stewed	11.7	..	5
English golden	..	14.2	5
ines	..	11.8	1
	..	5.3	5
a	1.2	..	5
e	..	2.2	13
m	..	0.5	13
	..	15.0	14
ry leaves	..	53.5	1
an	..	46.5	5
sion	..	—	5
white	1.8	..	5
ole wheat	7.0	..	5
, home-made	..	5.2	5
to	..	5.6	5
	..	5.6	9
	..	13.7	12
d	..	6.8	5
e, ox	10.6	..	1
ickled	23.6	..	5
ep, stewed	18.7	..	5
e, black	..	49.4	5
stewed	8.1	..	5
	8.9	..	13
med	15.2	..	5
sea, steamed	22.1	..	5
non	8.8	..	2
s, white	5.9	..	1
ek	10.3	..	1
t, steamed	18.4	..	5
y, dark meat, raw	10.4	..	13
Cooked	19.3	..	13
t meat, raw	12.7	..	13
Cooked	17.1	..	13
y, roast	19.5	..	5
ss	..	2.7	10
	..	10.2	1
	..	6.5	5
ed	..	5.2	5
o tops, boiled	..	2.3	5
o-rooted cabbage	..	1.7	1

TABLE 67.—The Metabolic Reaction of Foods.—(Continued)

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Sum of acid and alk.
Veal	13.5	..	13
	12.4	..	5
Chops, med. fat	9.8	..	14
Cutlet, fried	23.5	..	5
Fillet, raw	16.1	..	5
Roast	28.5	..	5
Loin	9.8	..	2
Med. fat	22.9	..	1
Roast	13.0	..	13
Vegetable marrow	1.9	5
Veget	17.1	5
Venison, roast	23.8	..	5
Vinegar	1.2	5
Waffles	5.6	..	13
Waldorf salad	4.0	13
Watercress	5.0	1
		7.5	5
		11.7	14
Walnuts, English	9.2	..	1
	8.4	..	5
	7.9	..	13
Watermelon	2.7	5
		1.8	1
Waternuts	0.2	..	1
Welsh rarebit	2.8	..	5
Wheat, entire	12.0	..	9
	9.7	..	10
Wheat groats	10.2	..	1
Starch	8.0	..	1
Whelks, cooked	23.5	..	5
Whey	2.7	1
Whitefish	11.3	..	13
White sauce, med.	0.9	13
Whiting, fried	15.2	..	5
Steamed	16.4	..	5
Wines, white:			
Moselle and Saar	0.73	1
Rhine wine	0.27	1
Nahe Valley	0.31	1
Franconian	1.00	1
Bordeaux	1.30	1
Central Italy	0.91	1
Spanish	0.48	..	1, 7
Caucasian	1.60	1
California	1.21	1
Red:			
Rhenish Hesse	1.34	1
Rhine Valley	1.12	1
Ahr Valley	0.29	1
Bordeaux	1.43	1
Bohemian	0.67	1
Central Italy	0.70	1
Spanish	0.68	1
Caucasian	2.33	1
Algerian	2.23	1
California	0.19	1
Wines, sweet:			
Tokay	1.03	1
Sherry	0.51	1
Malaga	3.04	1
Wines, sparkling:			
Sparkling Tokay	0.49	1
French Champagne	0.96	1

(Konig)

Food items.	Degrees of acidity.	Degrees of alkalinity.	Source of data.
Wheat:			
Ryeberry, sweet	..	3.64	1
Bottleberry, extra old	..	3.42	1
Apple pudding	2.8	1.56	1
Rye	10.4	..	5
Rye		..	1

SOURCE OF DATA FOR TABLE 67.

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MINERALS.

Calcium.—Calcium salts from different food sources are not fully well utilized. This may be due in part to retention in cellulose fiber, but it is primarily dependent upon the presence of oxalic acid. Much plant calcium exists as the insoluble oxalate. Where the calcium is bound to protein, as in milk, it is obviously more available for absorption. Milk calcium is usually regarded as wholly assimilable. Judging by biologic experiments, the calcium of kale is almost as available as that in milk; this is attributed to the low oxalate content of kale. Spinach, on the other hand, is rich in oxalates. Investigations by Kohman (1939) indicate that spinach not only supplies no available calcium but also renders unavailable a considerable portion of that present in other foods tested with the spinach. To provide assimilable calcium in the diet it is necessary to recognize the deleterious effect of oxalic acid. Table 68, therefore, presents specially assembled data with reference to these factors. The following additional items from earlier work are worth noting:

	Per cent.		Per cent.
Cocoa	0.45-0.49	Dried figs	0.15-0.20
Coffee, roasted	0.01-0.08	Ground pepper	0.32-0.40
Coffee, beverage	0.002	Poppy seeds	1.72
Tea, black	0.37-1.43	Sorrel	0.27-0.30
Tea, beverage	0.0044		

The possibility of nuts being a source of oxalic acid is apparent from analyses of Majumdar and De (1938): almonds 0.41 per cent, cashew nuts 0.32 per cent.

TABLE 68.—The Calcium and Oxalate Content of Various Foods.*

Food items.	Calcium, per cent.	Oxalic acid, per cent.	Total solids, per cent.
Apples, early summer	0.010	None	12.58
Apricots	0.024	0.014	13.62
Asparagus	0.0201	0.0052	6.05
Avocados	0.0095	None	14.60
Bananas	0.0071	0.0064	23.81
Beans, green pod	0.0440	0.0310	9.58
Lima	0.044	0.0043	24.25
Wax	0.054	0.041	7.80
Beets, unpeeled	0.018	0.138	8.23
Beet leaves	0.120	0.916	6.60
Beet stems	0.040	0.338	6.66
Blackberries	0.038	0.018	12.25
Blueberries	0.026	0.015	20.81
Broccoli, leaves and flowers	0.21	0.0054	10.50
Broccoli, stalks	0.092	0.0035	7.57
Cabbage	0.189	0.0077	8.80
Cabbage sprouts	0.150	0.0059	8.52
Cabbage, Chinese	0.210	0.0073	6.45
Cantaloupe	0.0090	None	8.46
Carrots	0.044	0.033	11.02
Cauliflower	0.034	None	8.90
Celery stalks, bleached	0.054	0.034	4.58
Celery, soup leaves	0.55	0.050	14.66
Celery, soup stems	0.18	0.062	10.20
Chard, Swiss, leaves	0.11	0.66	9.47
Chard, Swiss, stalks	0.045	0.29	7.10
Chard, Swiss, leaves and stalks	0.129	0.645	8.28
Chenopodium	0.099	1.11	8.20
Cherries, red sour	0.010	0.0011	12.18
Sweet, Bing	0.0019	None	24.50
Collards	0.361	0.0091	12.75
Corn, sweet, white	0.0076	0.0014	25.00
Yellow	0.0033	0.0052	33.51
Cress, land, wild	0.24	None	15.00
Cress, early, fine, curled	0.182	0.0106	8.80
Cucumbers	0.014	None	3.72
Currants, red	0.030	0.019	15.52
Dandelion greens	0.171	0.0246	11.38
Dewberries	0.027	0.014	13.70
Eggplant	0.010	0.0069	6.18
Endive	0.105	0.0273	7.58
Escarole	0.087	0.0116	6.10
Gooseberries, green	0.023	0.088	13.05
Grapes, Concord	0.024	0.025	15.30
Grapes, Thompson's seedless	0.013	None	23.90
Grape fruit	0.015	None	11.50

* Kohman, E. F.: Jour. Nutr., 18, 233, 1939.

Food items.	Calcium, per cent.	Oxalic acid, per cent.	Total solids per cent
us leaf ribs	0.31	0.013	11.05
arters	0.294	0.011	18.05
ice	0.099	1.11	8.20
	0.011	None	9.20
	0.17	0.083	18.90
	0.073	0.0071	6.46
	0.015	None	10.39
	0.26	0.11	31.00
	0.015	None	15.35
Casaba	0.0054	None	11.22
dew	0.0090	None	6.08
greens	0.235	0.0077	8.40
es	0.0084	None	14.45
	0.077	0.048	13.20
green	0.057	0.023	13.65
	0.038	0.024	15.15
eel	0.15	0.078	22.90
	0.29	0.19	13.70
	0.049	0.010	22.70
Alberta	0.012	0.0050	15.68
	0.0089	None	14.10
artlett	0.014	0.0030	17.60
	0.019	None	19.50
, sweet, green	0.0135	0.016	7.34
le, Hawaiian, canned	0.019	0.0063	17.44
damson	0.015	0.010	11.70
ngage	0.0080	None	13.20
	0.052	0.476	7.74
es, Irish	0.0094	0.0057	20.38
et	0.034	0.056	33.60
, Italian	0.12	0.0058	15.76
ne, leaves	0.13	0.910	9.45
ks	0.067	0.518	8.44
es	0.028	None	3.75
	0.11	0.0015	10.82
berries, black	0.058	0.053	22.10
	0.023	0.015	14.10
arb	0.044	0.50	6.62
ch	0.122	0.892	10.35
ch, canned	0.058	0.364	7.15
ch, New Zealand, leaves	0.11	0.89	7.60
ch, New Zealand, stalks	0.083	0.65	8.26
a, green, summer	0.036	None	5.51
berries	0.031	0.019	10.48
oes	0.010	0.0075	5.76
os, peeled	0.037	None	8.16
peeled	0.028	0.0018	6.58
o greens	0.245	0.0146	8.25
melon	0.0060	None	10.42

phosphorus. — Certain phosphorus compounds are less available than others. A variable amount (20 to 60 per cent) of ingested phosphorus (calcium-magnesium salts of inositolhexaphosphoric acid) is excreted unchanged. The fate of the remainder is obscure. On the average, 97.5 per cent of the phosphorus of animal origin is available. Where cereals bulk large in the dietary, the total phosphorus content is a wholly incorrect guide as to the available phosphorus intake. According to the authorities responsible for the published data, Table 69, phytin constitutes less than 5 per cent of the total phosphorus of an average middle-class English diet.

TABLE 69.—Phytin Content* of Various Foods.†

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Total P, mg. per 100 grams.</i>	<i>Phytin P, mg. per 100 grams.</i>	<i>Phytin P as percentage of Total P</i>
Cereals			
Barley, pearled	354	78	22.0
Barley, whole (incl. husk)	335	211	63.0
Bread, brown	198	82	41.5
Hovis	211	90	42.5
Swedish hard	360	90	25.0
Turog	127	35	27.6
White	59	3	5.1
Wholemeal	237	87	36.5
Corn, see Maize.			
Digestive biscuits	134	40	30.0
Flour, white	102	15	14.7
Flour, wholemeal	355	166	46.8
Grapenuts	255	86	33.7
Maize, yellow	363	210	58.0
Millet, whole	350	191	55.5
Oatmeal, Scotch	380	160	42.0
Oats, whole (incl. husk)	350	182	52.0
Poast Toasties	50	8	16.0
Rice, polished	99	41	41.5
Rice, unpolished	350	240	68.5
Rolled oats	339	224	66.0
Rusks	81	9	11.0
Ryvita	336	100	29.7
Sago	38	19	50.0
Shredded Wheat	173	79	45.3
Tapioca	42	0	0
Vitawheat	340	140	41.2
Wheat, whole	361	168	46.4
Cocoa and Chocolate			
Cocoa	675	162	24.0
Chocolate, milk	215	38	17.6
Chocolate, plain	139	82	58.5
Fruit			
Apples	8.5	0	0
Bananas	28.1	0	0
Blackberries	25.9	4.2	16.2
Figs, dried*	91.5	11.9	13.0
Prunes*	83.0	0	0
Legumes			
Beans, baked, canned	184	27	14.6
Beans, broad, boiled	108	5.4	5.0
Beans, butter, raw*	318	147	46.3

* Results expressed on fresh weight basis of edible portion only; "dried" foods reported on purchased weight basis.

† McCance, R. A., and Widdowson, E. M.: *Biochem. J.*, **29**, 2697, 1935.

Food items.	Total P, mg. per 100 grams.	Phytic P, mg. per 100 grams.	Phytin P as percent of total Total P.
t, raw* (p. 768)	309	154	50.0
	243	93	38.3
blue	303	150	49.5
canned	168	29	17.0
resh	105	11	10.8
split	268	124	46.3
36 values)			
nds (shelled)	442	364	80.1
ona nuts (shelled)	299	250	83.6
(shelled)	592	510	86.1
nuts (shelled)	74	9	12.2
nut (shelled)	94	75	80.0
ts (hazelnuts)	229	170	74.2
uts	365	220	60.2
uts	510	212	41.5
bles			
ots	20.0	3.3	15.8
flower	35.7	0	0
ry	31.7	0	0
salem artichokes	37.0	9.2	25.0
hrooms	136.5	0	0
ons	30.0	0	0
atoes, new, boiled	35.7	8.2	23.0
atoes, old, boiled	31.0	6.0	19.3
ach	98.0	0	0
des	19.0	0	0
nips	27.5	0	0

TABLE 70.—Available or Ionizable Iron.†

Food items.	Total iron, mg. per cent.	Ionizable iron, mg. per cent.
s	4.23	4.19
eating	0.29	0.26
ng	0.29	0.29
s, fresh	0.37	0.35
	4.09	4.01
kes, globe, boiled	0.49	0.49
os	0.53	0.53
raw	1.00	0.29
s	0.41	0.41
baked, canned	2.05	2.01
r, boiled	1.67	1.19
ot, boiled	2.50	2.10
er, boiled	0.59	0.44
w	3.70	0.37
, lean	5.00	0.95
	0.05	0.05
oiled	0.70	0.66
rries	0.85	0.34
uts	2.82	1.75
white	1.00	0.89
e wheat	2.70	2.13

These data are calculated from McCance and Widdowson (1940) and do not necessarily agree with the values shown in Table 71 or elsewhere in this book. (see

TABLE 70.—Available or Ionizable Iron.—*Continued*

Food items.	Total iron, mg. per cent.	Available iron, mg. per cent.
Brussels sprouts, boiled	0.63	0.47
Cabbage, boiled	0.47	0.35
Raw, 72% available.		
Carrageen moss, dried	8.88	8.88
Carrots, boiled	0.37	0.32
Raw	0.56	0.52
Cauliflower, boiled	0.48	0.48
Celeriac, boiled	0.84	0.82
Celery	0.61	0.61
Cherries	0.38	0.38
Chestnuts, baked, 51% available.		
Chicken, roast	2.60	0.71
Chicory	0.69	0.41
Chocolate, dark	3.28	2.31
Milk	1.67	1.46
Cocoa powder	14.30	13.50
Cocoanut	2.08	1.79
Milk	0.10	0.07
Cod, steamed	0.50	0.50
Cranberries	1.11	0.78
Cucumber	0.30	0.30
Currants, black	1.27	1.27
Red	1.22	1.04
Dried	1.82	1.02
Custard apple	0.53	0.53
Damson plums	0.41	0.29
Dates	1.61	1.32
Eggplant, raw	0.39	0.20
Eggs	2.53	2.53
Endive	2.77	1.99
Figs, fresh	0.42	0.40
Dried	4.17	4.00
Flour, white	0.92	0.86
Gooseberries	0.32	0.13
Grapefruit	0.26	0.24
Grapes, black	0.34	0.28
White	0.34	0.29
Greengage plums	0.37	0.31
Haddock, steamed	0.70	0.70
Ham, cooked, lean	2.60	0.39
Hazelnuts	1.06	1.04
Heart, baked	8.10	5.10
Herring	1.50	1.50
Fried	1.90	1.41
Herring roe, fried	1.50	1.48
Horseradish	2.03	2.03
Kidney, pig, fried, 58% available.		
Ox, stewed	7.10	4.69
Leeks, boiled	2.00	1.82
Lemon juice	0.14	0.11
Lentils, raw	7.62	5.03
Lettuce	0.73	0.46
Liver, calves', raw	13.90	13.90
Pig's, raw, 80% available.		
Lamb's, fried, 100% available.		
Ox, fried	20.70	18.42
Loganberries	1.37	1.04
Mackerel, fried	1.20	0.77
Mushrooms	1.03	1.02
Mustard and cress	4.54	1.91
Mutton, roast	4.30	1.03
Nectarines	0.46	0.40
Oatmeal	4.12	3.96
Olives, bottled, brined	1.03	1.00
Onions	0.30	0.30
Orange juice	0.30	0.25

Food items.	Total iron, mg. per cent.	Ionizable iron, mg. per cent.
boiled	0.45	0.45
mit	1.12	1.12
fresh	0.38	0.38
	6.75	6.21
	2.04	2.04
ing	0.22	0.22
g	0.16	0.15
sh, raw	1.88	1.39
	1.87	1.87
boiled	1.44	1.22
boiled	1.74	1.24
e	0.42	0.38
steamed	0.60	0.58
	0.30	0.16
anate juice	0.15	0.04
ops, fried	2.40	1.13
s, boiled	0.48	0.47
s, boiled, 81% available.		
dried	2.90	2.09
	0.32	0.17
stewed	1.90	0.80
es	1.88	1.17
, dried	1.55	1.49
berries	1.21	0.92
	3.73	3.73
rb	0.40	0.40
	0.45	0.38
a, canned	1.30	1.20
, boiled	1.23	1.21
es, canned	4.00	2.60
ge, beef, fried	4.10	2.95
k, fried	3.30	2.70
ale, boiled	0.60	0.55
fried	1.20	1.20
steamed	0.70	0.70
ch, boiled	4.00	2.30
berries	0.71	0.37
nas, dried	1.82	1.18
es, raw	0.35	0.34
bread, steamed	1.60	1.14
, English golden	1.45	1.38
erine juice	0.27	0.26
atoes	0.43	0.28
ie, cooked	3.40	0.66
le, black	9.17	9.17
ps, raw	0.37	0.25
raw	2.30	0.92
st	2.50	1.37
able marrow, boiled	0.22	0.19
its	2.35	0.96
ecress	1.62	1.07
es, boiled	15.00	8.70

MINERAL DATA ON VARIOUS FOODS.

Production.—In compiling data on the mineral content of foods, course was had to the literature (elsewhere designated) and to published analyses. Where available, averaged findings of different investigators in various sections of the country were taken as more nearly representative than any single estimation. Where reported analyses differed appreciably, an average was particularly desirable. On the other hand, any figure that diverged widely from the results of other analysts was discarded. For example, the iron content of Malaga grapes is given by Toscani

and Reznikoff as 0.54 to 0.71, by Peterson and Elvehjem as 0.22, Sherman as 0.73, and by Rose as 0.30 mg. per 100 grams of fruit. Our approximation is 0.68 mg

Much of the literature gives mineral data to the third decimal place in milligrams. It was felt that it was unnecessary to report these analyses closer than to the nearest second decimal. This has reduced many of the manganese figures, especially as far as meat and fish are concerned, to identity where in reality slight divergences were encountered.

For the most part similar or identical laboratory procedures were employed in ascertaining any one element. This eliminates to a large extent variations in results attributable to method rather than to fact. It should not be forgotten, however, that method is an important factor affecting the results obtained and that no uniformity is claimed for any part of the data compiled in this table.

From the laboratory standpoint, it is preferable to remove moisture and to make all analyses on the desiccated basis. From the standpoint of the user of foods, reports on the dry basis are confusing and difficult to evaluate. To the best of our knowledge the figures reported in this table are on the wet basis, that is, on the food as it occurs naturally. Since moisture content may vary widely in samples of food otherwise identical, and since the percentage value will shift accordingly, the clinician should take the figures given as approximations. In determining the need of the patient, the quantity of the food eaten must be considered as well as its probable mineral composition. Parsley is outstanding for its high iron concentration, yet in terms of actual consumption, it usually is negligible as a source of iron. On the other hand, whole wheat bread, although not an iron-rich food, may be consumed in sufficient amounts to provide a significant portion of the daily requirement of the normal adult (Myers, *et al.*, 1935).

No factor affects the mineral composition of food more adversely or more strikingly than does cooking. Since our diet is composed to a large extent of cooked foods, analysis of such would seem the only logical procedure. Methods of cooking, however, differ so vastly as to discourage the analyst from attempting this extra process. In many cases no data are available as to the state of the food analyzed. Except where specified, analyses are best taken as involving the raw food. Many figures reported in the literature as on cooked food have been omitted because it had been stated or was apparent that the data had been obtained by "calculation." It is possible that some of the figures we have included for meat have been arrived at by general considerations plus a little mathematics; it has not always been possible to ascertain from the literature just how much actual analytical work has been done.

Many factors influence the mineral constituents of plant and animal foods during the period of their elaboration by Nature. It is not known to what extent these minerals are accidental rather than essential. As far as we know, the chief agents determining their presence are composition of soil and availability of moisture.

nutritionist is specifically warned against using these analyses for computation of mineral intake in investigating the calcium and phosphorus balance of patients. In such cases both food and urine must be analyzed or interpretation of findings is futile. Urine should be used only as an aid in selecting diets high or low with respect to certain minerals. As shown by Davidson and Davidson (1936) appreciable variation is encountered in the mineral content of some vegetables grown under different conditions. Each vegetable has a range of variation such that single values may be misleading. The inadequacy of analytical data is obvious.

As a rule, analyses have been made upon foods grown naturally. The modern market contains much which is hot-house grown or otherwise forced. Not only may the total quantity of minerals present at maturation proceeds but its character may be altered. Immature corn, for instance, contains ten times as much inorganic phosphorus as the ripe cereal, the change to the organic form increasing the production of the none-too-available phytic acid.

Exposure to metallic containers not infrequently augments the mineral content of minerals, particularly with respect to copper and iron. The iron content of Norwegian goat cheese (11 to 27 mg. per 100 grams) is ascribed to long cooking in iron pans, the element apparently being bound as a complex salt to lactic and citric acids in sour milk. Milk transported in cans contains more iron than milk taken directly from the cow. Canned corn has frequently been reported as having an unusually high copper content.

Data on the sulfur content of foods is provided in Table 73. Although the magnesium, sodium and potassium contents of the most common foodstuffs have been determined, little use is made of such information.

Iron.—The ingested iron is no criterion as to that assimilated. The nearer the iron comes to duplicating the type of organic linkage found in hemoglobin, the less available it appears to be for synthesis of new hemoglobin. Inorganic iron salts seem to provide the element in its most utilizable form. Acceptance of the theory that inorganic iron is assimilable by the human being is rendered doubtful by the complexity of the factors involved.

Copper.—Minute amounts of copper have a stimulating effect on metabolism, respiration and hematopoiesis (Steenbock, Elvehjem, *et al.*, 1931). This element markedly accelerates the spontaneous oxidation of iron *in vitro*. The oxidation of glutathione is catalyzed by copper, not by iron (Voegtlin, *et al.*, 1931).

The respiratory pigment, hemoglobin, is replaced in the blood of cephalopods (*e. g.*, octopus and squid), crustacea (*e. g.*, lobsters and crabs), and mollusks (*e. g.*, oysters and clams) by hemocyanin which contains copper instead of iron, the copper concentration ranging from 0.33 to 0.38 per cent.

Although the daily intake of copper is only 2 to 2.5 mg., it is a very essential. The copper of egg-yolk is not available to the

body because of the easily-split sulfur compounds present. Copper sulfide is not absorbed (Sherman, Elvehjem, Hart, 1934). Bread is a fair source of copper although poor in iron.

Manganese.—Extremely small amounts of manganese occur in the diet. Its function is obscure, although it appears to be necessary for avoidance of sterility in the male and for production of an adequate supply of milk in the female rat. Manganese may also play an important rôle as a catalytic agent in blood regeneration.

Chlorides.—It is customary to report chloride analyses in terms of NaCl. Since the chlorine may be combined with sodium, potassium, calcium, magnesium, and other elements occurring in traces, this may lead to absurdities. For example, molasses is very high in potassium (1.349 per cent) and low in sodium (0.019 per cent), yet its chlorine content (0.317 per cent) includes it among foods high in "NaCl." As a rule, when a diet low in sodium chloride is indicated, it is the sodium, not the chlorine which is proscribed. In most instances, of course, the restriction is confined to the use of table salt either as employed in cooking or in dining. When, however, it becomes necessary to limit the amount of naturally occurring sodium chloride, it should be remembered that the data given in the last column of Table 71 may or may not present the desired information.

Calcium and Phosphorus.—The importance of these elements in the diet is indicated by the current efforts to increase their intake (and likewise that of iron) by fortifying staple foods. In general, Table 71 contains data on the natural concentrations. Where high values are listed, it may be inferred that fortification thereof is the rule.

TABLE 71.—Mineral Constituents of Various Foods.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

A

Items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl as NaCl
	400	126	4.90				
Braught . . .	12	15	0.05	0.13		36	59
Bottled . . .	13	18	0.08	0.07		36	59
Braught . . .	11	22	0.05	0.08		35	58
Bottled . . .	14	18	0.07	0.06		32	53
	17	29	0.10	0.11		54	89
Hawaiian:							
Apple . . .	170	34					
Orange . . .	584	16					
Kellogg . . .	77	1,336	16.67	1.00			
	230	457†	4.07	1.21	1.94	37	61
Cheese . . .	930	701	1.30	0.05	0.11	880	1,452
Butter . . .	11		10.00	0.07	0.08	25	42
Butter, Heinz . . .	18	12	2.20	0.64			
Beans (dried) . . .	24	42	4.10				
Canned . . .			0.58				
Dried . . .	32	48	1.50			61	100
Fresh . . .	8	12	0.38	0.10	0.04	5	8
Rice . . .	6	1	0.34				
Canned . . .	10	20	0.65	0.34	0.08		
Dried . . .	65	120	6.74	0.37	0.28	9	15
Dried, cooked . . .	18	32	2.01	0.11			
Fresh . . .	13	24	0.30	0.14		2	3
Rad, fresh corm . . .	16	207	4.90				
Butter . . .	7	27	1.95	0.22		7	11
Beans, French . . .	40	94	1.89	0.31	0.36		
Beans, French, . . .							
	44	40	0.49	0.09		84	139
Beans, Jerusalem, . . .							
	30	33	0.41	0.12		58	96
Beans, fresh . . .	25	39	0.79	0.14	0.10	39	64
Beans, boiled . . .	26	85	0.89	0.20		31	51
Beans, canned . . .	21	32	0.75				
Beans tips, canned . . .	2	38	1.44	0.15	0.13		
Beans (alligator pear) . . .	45	44	6.30				
Beans, Calavo strain . . .	37	49	1.50				
Beans, West Indian . . .	15	31	0.53	0.21		6	10

B

Beans, Boston . . .	600	600	24.00	0.30			
Canned . . .	14	38	0.90				
Crisp, drained . . .	12	216	3.00	0.52	0.02	4,500	7,410
Raw . . .	10	96	1.50		0.01	38	63
Beans, Heinz:							
Bean Style . . .	81	94	1.10	0.32			
Bean . . .	32	63	1.70	0.35			
Bean and tomato sauce . . .	69	46	1.10	0.24			
Beanarian . . .	63	42	1.70	0.30			
Bean shoots . . .	5	44	0.70				
	8	30	0.60	0.21	0.82	125	206
Bean entire . . .	51	400	4.75	0.37	1.59		
Bean pearled . . .	10	206	0.67	0.12		105	173
Bean pearled, boiled . . .	3	70	0.23	0.04		36	59
			0.42	0.21	0.03		
Bean creamed . . .	47	220	0.70			85	140

ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 769.

* now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral values of products. Consult label on food.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)
(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl
Bean soup, navy, dehydrated . . .	148	463	10.30			
Beans:						
Baked, canned . .	62	184	2.05	0.24		8.10
Broad, cooked . .	21	99	0.98	0.43		7.8
Butter, cooked . .	19	87	1.67	0.16		2
French, boiled . .	39	15	0.59	0.10		11
Haricot, cooked . .	65	122	2.50	0.14		1
Kidney, dried . .	132	475	7.00	0.65	1.64	41
Kidney, canned . .	39	142	1.50			
Lima, fresh . . .	28	133	2.20			9
Lima, canned . .	16	76	2.16			
Lima, dried . . .	71	347	7.00	0.86	1.07	26
Navy, cooked . . .	50	200	2.05			
Navy, dried . . .	158	483	8.25	0.69	2.54	32
Scarlet runner, cooked	26	11	0.59	0.03		9
Soy, green, cooked .	97	273	2.10			
String or snap . .	50	51	0.95	0.10	0.24	24
Beef:						
Bone-marrow . . .			0.90			
Brain	8	380	2.30			
Corned	16	291	4.10			2.08
Dried	17	323	6.20			
Dripping	1	13	0.20			2
Heart	9	172	4.80			
Juice	8	31	44.40			
Kidney	7	252	5.50	0.11		
Liver	12	220	8.30	2.15	0.25	
Loin, med. fat . .	10	182	3.70	0.12		
Muscle, not trimmed	12	222				
Muscle, well trimmed	14	220				
Pancreas			6.00			
Round, lean . . .	13	204	4.10	0.08	0.02	76
Tongue	8	199				
Beef, cooked:						
Bottom round, braised	5	234	4.40			
Clod, braised . . .	7	169	4.00			
Clod, roasted . . .	6	211	2.60			
Rib, roasted . . .	8	199	2.10			
Sirloin, roast, lean .	7	284	5.30	0.19		74
Sirloin, lean and fat .	6	237	4.60	0.17		64
Steak, med. fat, fried	5	257	6.00			70
Steak, med. fat, grilled	9	303	5.20			64
Top clod, roasted . .	17	147	2.90			
Top round, roasted .	12	213	3.80			
Topside, lean, boiled	4	247	8.30			49
Topside, lean, roast .	6	286	4.70			62
Beef, roasted, canned .	18	157				839
Beef sausage, fried .	21	168	4.10	0.17		1,770
Beef stew	13	160	2.49			1,070
Beet greens	94	40	3.55	0.09	1.26	
Beet greens, cooked .			2.98		0.90	
Beets, root	24	37	2.36	0.19	0.94	58
Beets, boiled	30	36	0.70	0.14		76
Beets, strained, Gerber	11	13	1.20			
Beets, strained, Heinz .	17	37	1.60	0.19		
Bemax	60	1,166	10.60	1.59		
Blackberries, fresh . .	17	34	1.00	0.16	0.59	10
Blanc-mange	117	95	0.17	0.04		93
Blueberries	25	20	0.41	0.11	4.44	8
Bluefish	23	235	1.10			

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

It is now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral value of cereal products. Consult label on food.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl as NaCl
	52	1,300	12.10	0.83		6,880	11,330
	3	60	2.80				
, boiled	16	355	2.00				
ep, boiled	11	339	2.20			167	276
	123	916	9.67	0.77		177	292
at	120	1,215	12.70	1.17	9.11	90	149
	176	592†	3.93	1.39	0.92	61	100
ston brown	129	185	3.00			607	1,002
n	55	102	0.70				
ham	50	218	2.50	0.32	3.16	607	1,002
	24	148	2.30	0.28	1.28	1,025	1,691
, light	22	96	0.80				
ite	31	97	1.00	0.34	0.31	353	582
ite (1940)	80		1.10				
ite, enriched	56	100	1.80				
ite, salt-free	16					116	191
ole wheat	50	250	3.30			381	628
ole wheat, salt-							
	11					31	51
it	84	68	0.26			100	165
	122	59	3.30	1.37			
tops, cooked	160	54	1.52	0.10		51	84
sprouts	27	121	2.23	0.10	0.27	40	66
sprouts, cooked	27	45	0.63	0.08		11	18
eat flour	10	176	1.20	0.07	2.09	12	20
, fresh root	64	39	3.90				
	15	17	0.20	0.03	0.04	1,212	2,000
salt-free	15					162	267
milk	105	97	0.25			99	163
uts			6.84	1.17			
C							
re, Chinese			0.58	0.06	0.12		
re greens	106	99				68	112
re, red, raw	53	32	0.57	0.09		45	74
re, Savoy, boiled	53	27	0.72	0.07		9	15
re, spring, boiled	30	32	0.45	0.07		6	10
re, white, fresh	45	26	0.50	0.05	0.07	24	40
re, winter, boiled	58	16	0.47	0.04		14	23
ght batter type	62	126	2.0				
(Avocado)	37	49	1.50				
liver	11	205	5.40	4.41	0.34		
upe	17	15	0.51	0.06	0.04	41	68
	122	62					
en moss, dried	845	205	8.88	0.51		1,150	1,894
	46	38	0.60	0.08	0.06	36	59
, new, cooked	29	30	0.43	0.08		28	46
, old, cooked	37	17	0.37	0.08		31	51
ry	1,785	442					
nuts	48	480					
fried	19	228	2.30			150	248
steamed	14	212	0.60			108	178
wer	122	60	1.43	0.14	0.17	50	83
wer, cooked	23	33	0.48	0.06		12	20
	137	176				1,819	2,997
, cooked	47	71	0.84	0.13		23	38
	68	48	0.60	0.01	0.16	156	257
cooked	52	19	0.43	0.11		100	165
abbage			0.58	0.06	0.12		
	220	300	7.60	1.50		40	66

ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 769.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl
Cereal, Mead's	780	620	30.00	1.30		
Chard	87	40	4.02	0.11	0.80	39
Cheese:						
American, Cheddar . .	930	701	1.30	0.05	0.11	850
Cottage	82	263	0.11			
Dutch	900	478	0.78	0.05		2,050
English cream	30	44	0.14	0.04		151
Full-cream, California	635	528				1,012
Gorgonzola	540	375	0.50	0.15		1,800
Gruyère	1,080	698	0.26	0.27		825
Parmesan	1,220	772	0.37	0.36		1,110
Pot	100	326				
Stilton	362	304	0.46	0.03		1,720
Swiss	1,086	812	1.20	0.13	0.16	
Cherries, glacé	44	18	2.90	1.28		71
Cherries, Royal Anne, canned	59	17	0.27	0.12	0.78	
Cherries, sweet	19	31	0.50	0.14	0.03	14
Cherry juice	17	18	0.30			3
Chestnuts	34	93†	4.10	0.06	3.67	6
Chicken, boiled	11	270	2.10			62
Chicken, boned, canned	32	218	1.9			
Chicken, dark meat . .	11	208	1.01	0.41		
Chicken, light meat . .	11	208	0.70	0.27		
Chicken, lean, no skin .	15	270	3.80			
Chicken, roast	15	271	2.60			100
Chicory	18	21	0.69	0.14		25
Chili sauce	16	22	1.50	0.39	0.15	
Chili con carne, without beans, canned	21	152	0.7			
Chipped beef	20	370	5.1			
Chives	48	57	8.40			
Chocolate, bitter . . .	92	455	3.00	2.67	3.05	51
Chocolate, sweetened .	80	400	2.20	2.00		
Chocolate, milk	175	215	1.67	0.14		132
Chocolate, plain . . .	26	139	3.28	1.11		9
Chow Chow, Heinz . . .	32	53	2.50	0.18		
Chutney, apple	27	34	1.01	0.10		29
Chutney, tomato	26	37	0.93	0.12		46
Cider	8	9				6
Citron, fresh, unripe . .	64	20	0.70	0.08		
Citron, candied	41	17	0.32	0.14		
Citron, preserved, com.	86	22	1.24	0.48		
Clams, round, raw . . .	106	116				1,220
Clams, soft, long . . .	123	105				910
Cocoa, dry	120	720	3.00†	3.34	3.53	51
Cocoanut, fresh	24	74†	2.67	0.70	1.31	120
Cocoanut, shredded . .	59	155		0.69		239
Cocoanut milk	29	37	0.10	0.04		183
Cocomalt	300	330	17.60			
Cod, fresh	10	187	0.34	0.47	0.01	
Cod, salt, raw	27	287	0.52			
Cod, fried	50	261	1.00	0.10		145
Cod, grilled	31	274	1.00			130
Cod, steamed	15	242	0.50	0.10		120
Cod roe, baked in vine- gar	13	402	2.30			173
Cod roe, fried	17	504	1.60			188

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 769.

‡ T. and R. report cocoa, A.P., as having Fe 12.6 milligrams per 100 grams.

It is now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral values of cereal products. Consult label on food.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl as NaCl
on:							
	2	2	Trace	Trace			
	3	3	Trace	Trace			
	4	4	Trace	Trace			
	4	5	Trace	Trace			
	202	74	1.68				
	89	112	1.22				
reen	6	103	0.51	0.08	0.15	14	23
ried	21	376	2.90		0.60		
canned	4		0.70	0.10	0.03		
	29	281	3.64	0.48	0.75		
dry	150	334					
d	55	102	0.70				
es, Kellogg	8	56	2.67	0.17	0.05		
	15	39	1.43	0.13		71	117
p	2	31	0.20				
ef	16	291	4.10				
, degerminated	10	140	1.0				
, whole-grain	18	262	2.7				
, cooked	5	39	0.20				
, yellow, raw	16	152	1.30	0.20	0.28	146	241
	18	191			0.03		
iled	29	350	1.30			570	939
t (Atlantic),							
	133	38	2.00	1.30			
, Graham	20	203	1.88			530	873
, soda	20	100	1.50				
ries	12	10	0.45	0.09	0.30	9	15
	63	120		0.80	0.10	287	473
	99	77	0.22	0.15		80	132
f Wheat, cooked			0.83	0.28	0.44		
of Wheat, "new							
aute"	504	590	42.40				
ber	16	26	0.35	0.06	0.15	30	50
t juice	16	13					
ts, fresh	26	38	0.70			6	10
ts, black	60	43	1.27	0.14		15	25
ts, black, stewed	42	30	0.89	0.10		10	16
ts, red	36	30	1.22	0.12		14	23
ts, red, stewed	26	21	0.89	0.90		10	16
ts, white	22	28	0.93	0.14		11	18
ts, dried	82	195	4.74	1.12	0.31	60	99
l apple	12	51	0.53	0.15		40	66
meat	33	101	4.70			436	718
powder	637	270	75.00	1.04		470	775
l, egg, baked	127	130	0.51	0.05		123	203
l, egg, boiled	113	116	0.46	0.04		110	181
l powder	122	98	0.15	0.04		110	181
sh	32	48	2.90	0.40	0.17	410	676

D

ns	24	16	0.41	0.08		<1	
ns, stewed	16	11	0.28	0.06			
ion greens	63	45	6.04	0.15	0.34	99	163
ns, corms	13	32	1.50				
dding, Heinz	64	78	0.50	0.19			
	71	49	5.07	0.38	0.15	228	376

For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 769

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Co	Zn
Dextri-Maltose with Vitamin B, Mead's			8.40	2.00			
Doughnuts	21	55	1.62	0.11			
Duck	10	240	1.71	0.41	0.03		
Duck, roast	19	231	5.80				
Dumpling	6	31	0.32	0.03			

E

Eel			0.51	0.17	0.03		
Eel, stewed	42	137	1.20			30	
Egg, whole	68	224	2.52	0.23	0.03	106	
Egg-white	15	14	0.10	0.03		155	
Egg-yolk	130	592	7.60	0.40	0.11	94	
Eggs, fried	64	256	2.53	0.05		199	
Eggs, poached	52	239	2.30	0.03		155	
Eggs, raw or boiled	56	218	2.53	0.03		159	
Eggs, scrambled	62	191	2.08	0.05		1,910	
Eggs, omelette	39	143	1.63	0.04		1,520	
Eggs, cheese omelette	316	356	2.20	0.06		2,180	
Eggplant	11	23	0.61	0.10	0.11	24	
Embo	42	1,084	7.00				
Endive	104	38	1.23	0.09	0.22	167	
Escarole	27	29	1.53				

F

Farina, raw	21	125	0.90	0.29	0.45	76	125
Fig pudding, Heinz	97	76	1.10	0.16			
Figs, dried	162	116	3.96	0.35	0.35	43	71
Figs, fresh	53	36	0.79	0.06		14	25
Filberts, hazel nuts	287	354†	4.50	1.35	4.17	67	111
Finnan haddie	19	195	0.90				
Fish paste	146	210	6.00	0.06		2,380	3,920
Fish, white, fried, av.		235	1.10			179	295
Fish, white, steamed, av.		232	0.65			111	183
Flounder, fried	75	218	1.10			200	330
Flounder, steamed	55	296	1.30			148	244
Flounder, "sole"	36	163	0.75	0.18	0.02		
Flours:							
Buckwheat	10	176	1.20	0.70	2.09	12	20
Graham	35	306	3.70	0.49	4.28	70	11
Rye	18	289	2.60	0.42	1.94	55	90
White	16	106	1.30	0.17	0.40	74	122
Whole wheat	31	238	5.00			70	116
Force	66	339	3.98	0.36		1,120	1,845
Frankfort sausage	11	216	2.50				
Fruit salad, canned	8	10	3.45	0.03		3	5

G

Gelatin, Knox sparkling	453	234					
Ginger, ground	97	136	17.20	0.45		40	60
Gingerbread	36	81	1.26	0.07		104	174
Goose	9	176	2.02	0.33	0.05		
Goose, roast	10	267	4.60			159	
Gooseberries	35	31	0.47	0.08	0.04		

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 769

It is now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral values of cereal products. Consult label on food.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl as NaCl
As, green	28	34	0.32	0.13		7	11
As, ripe	19	19	0.58	0.15		11	18
Aur	35	306	3.70	0.49	4.28	70	116
			1.00				
e, Concord	11	11	0.30	0.02		2	3
e, Welch's	9	9				2	3
merican types	19	35	0.30	0.06	0.09	5	8
ack	4	16	0.34	0.08		<1	
abella	12	23	0.33				
sabella, with-							
s	8	16	0.23				
alian	15	8	0.43			4	6
hite	19	22	0.34	0.10		<1	
	21	20	0.27	0.03	0.01	5	8
t, canned			0.70				
t juice, Florida	27	20	0.18				
	48	333	5.64	0.19		905	1,490
eat stock	3	6	0.07				
es	17	23	0.37	0.08		1	2
oast	30	338	7.60			134	220
ommon, whole	10	22	1.46			45	74
ommon, with-							
eds	15	16	0.30				
ommon, juice	6	6	0.12				
-strawberry,							
	34	20	0.28				
fowl, roast	19	292	9.30			179	295
	72	62	0.63	0.12	0.62		

H

ek			0.48	0.23	0.02		
ek, fillets, raw	32	216	1.00			156	257
ek, fried	114	247	1.20			181	298
ek, steamed	41	178	0.50			59	97
ek, smoked,							
ned	58	248	1.00			1,900	3,140
fried	26	259	0.90	0.17		134	221
	8	200	0.94	0.23	0.01		
t, steamed	13	255	0.60	0.07		80	132
oiled	12	218	1.70			3,350	5,520
resh, lean	14	269	2.10				
omoked, med. fat	11	211	1.40				
nd eggs, canned	43	166	2.20				
arger	9	172	2.40				
oast	28	337	9.80	0.24		108	178
tewed	21	248	10.80			74	122
uts, filberts	287	354	4.50	1.35	4.17	67	111
beef	9	172	4.80				
sheep, roast	10	389	8.10			125	207
			0.57	0.28	0.02		
g, baked in vine-							
	58	326	1.60			119	196
g, fillets, raw	101	272	1.50			122	200
g, fried	39	339	1.90			125	207
g roe, fried	16	915	1.50			123	203
y nuts			2.38	1.43			
y, cooked	2	20	0.10				
y, raw	60	70	0.54	0.19	0.11	46	76
	4	19	3.20	0.20	0.03	29	48

For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)
(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl
Horseradish	100	80	2.00	0.14		16
Huckleberries	25	20	0.90		4.40	2
Hung-toi (N. Y. C.) .	77	64	3.20			

I

Ice-cream	150	120	0.17			
Irish stew	10	57	0.90			559

J

Jam, fruit with edible seeds	24	18	1.47	0.23		9
Jam, stone fruit	12	18	1.02	0.12		3
Jelly	14	8	0.30			4

K

Kale	197	72	2.54		0.50	
Ketchup, tomato, <i>Heinz</i> .	17	42	1.20	1.30		
Kidney beans, canned .	39	142	1.50			
Kidney beans, dried .	132	475	7.00	0.65	1.64	41
Kidney, ox, raw	14	262	15.00			256
Kidney, ox, stewed . . .	21	392	7.10			144
Kidney, sheep, raw . . .	13	254	11.70	0.31		295
Kidney, sheep, fried . .	17	433	14.50	0.30		288
Kidney, veal	9	171	4.00			
Kippers, baked	65	426	1.40			1,520
<i>Kix</i>	130	110	5.00			2,560
Kohlrabi	77	44	0.68	0.14	0.11	53
Kumquats			0.51	0.08	0.06	

L

Lamb chops	11	202	1.60	0.42	0.04	
Lamb muscle	21	180				
Lamb, roast	11	212	1.70			
Lard	1	3	0.10	0.02		4
Leeks	58	56				24
Leeks, cooked	61	28	2.00	0.09		43
Lemon juice	24	10	0.15			3
Lemon peel, Florida . .			0.75			
Lemons	36	18	0.60	0.04	0.04	2
Lentils, cooked	32	131	2.60	0.27		13
Lentils, dry	102	383	8.60			50
Lettuce, head	43	42	0.56	0.04	†	74
Lettuce, leaf	27	42	1.76	0.06	†	
Lima beans, canned . .	16	76	2.16			
Lima beans, dried . . .	71	347	7.00	0.86	1.07	26
Lima beans, fresh . . .	28	133	2.20			9
Limes	55	36				39
Litchi	3	32	0.21			
Liver, beef, raw	12	220	8.30	2.15	0.25	
Liver, calves', raw . . .	11	205	5.40	4.41	0.34	
Liver, calves', fried . .	9	576	21.70			120
Liver, ox, fried	9	550	20.70			82

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

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(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl as NaCl
ma.	20	208	0.44	0.73	0.04		
ed . . .	62	283	0.80			525	865
. . .	35	24	1.37	0.14		16	26
. . .	25	86	2.70				
. . .	15	173					
. . .	17	173	11.02				
. . .	13	255	5.19			121	199
. . .	12	153	3.04			120	198
. . .	10	160	4.32			112	185
. . .	191	520				34	56

M

						1,060	1,746
and cheese . .	199	162	0.35	0.04			
cooked . . .	4	25	0.25	0.26			
n cream sauce,							
raw . . .	93	45	0.10	0.09		73	120
. . .	22	144	1.20				
raw . . .	11	273	0.81	0.30	0.02	114	188
. . .	28	280	1.20	0.20		516	849
fried . . .	272	402	1.30	1.22		70	116
ilk, Horlick's	59	196	1.10				
lain . . .						70	116
with cod-liver	41	137	0.80				
. . .						70	116
with spleen-	57	237	280.00			140	231
and iron . .	9	28				2	3
pple . . .	15	8	0.86			19	31
orange, Italian	21	17	0.20			82	135
. . .	26	38				10	16
. . .	107	13	3.00			495	816
rup . . .	4	12	0.30	0.04		7	11
he . . .	35	12	0.58	0.12			
de . . .	980	2,620	4.60	0.60	Trace	6,760	11,140
(Vegex)						14	23
vegetable,	14	13	0.22	0.03			
. . .	7	18	0.25				
aise . . .	47	37	0.30	0.44			
aise, Heinz	780	620	30.00	1.30			
Cereal						1,500	2,470
paste (chicken,	27	132	3.70	0.09		1,123	1,850
tongue)	64	255	9.00			561	929
ice, Valentine	25	1,130					
ptone . . .	15	227	15.00				
Food . . .						280	462
ow's:			0.60				
ensed . . .	300	235	0.15	0.15			
. . .	920	710	0.53	0.07			
. . .	276	182	Trace				
orated . . .	1,180	880	Trace				
tered, skim	820	620	Trace				
tered, whole, Klim	136	110	0.24			110	182
nstituted . .	122	96	0.25			106	175
. . .	120	93	0.24	0.02	Trace		
le . . .						62	102
. . .						105	173
alo . . .	203	125					
el . . .	143	98	0.22			210	345
abao . . .	128	92				35	58
. . .	128	103	0.15			29	48
man . . .	20	20				71	117
man . . .	83	54					
ie's . . .	207	123					
ep (ewe's)							

ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

on northern grown lettuce, 1.08; on southern grown, 0.50

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	
Millet	14	327				
Mince meat	85	175	3.00	0.08		
Mince meat, Heinz	37	35	1.80	0.44		
Molasses	258	30	7.97	1.93	0.04	
Mulberries, black	36	48	1.57	0.06		
Mullet, grey, steamed	14	256	2.00			
Mullet, red, steamed	29	282	0.90			
Mushrooms	14	98	3.14	1.79	0.08	
Mushrooms, canned	22	45	5.60			
Mushrooms, fried	4	166	1.25	0.78		
Mushrooms, dried		371	16.10			
Muskellunge			0.62	0.25	0.02	
Muskmelon	17	15				
Mussels, boiled	197	331	13.50			
Mustard	333	177	10.90	0.20		
Mustard, Heinz			1.80	0.28		
Mustard and cress	66	66	4.54	0.12		
Mutton chop, lean, raw	13	195	1.70	0.16		
Mutton chop, lean, fried	15	222	3.10	0.13		
Mutton chop, lean, grilled	21	239	2.50	0.18		
Mutton chop, med. fat, raw	13	173	1.00	0.16		
Mutton chop, med. fat, fried	14	184	2.60	0.12		
Mutton chop, med. fat, grilled	18	206	2.40	0.18		
Mutton, leg, boiled	4	238	5.10	0.24		
Mutton, leg, roast	4	242	4.30			
Mutton, scrag and neck, stewed	50	220	6.80			

N

Nectarines	4	24	0.46	0.06		5
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O

Oatmeal, cooked	11	65	0.59			
Oatmeal, raw	63	422	3.80	0.50	2.79	69
Okra	72	62	0.63	0.12	0.62	
Olive oil	Trace	Trace	0.08	0.07		Trace
Olives, green, brined	100	15	0.82	0.46	0.05	3,750
Olives, ripe, Heinz	105	14	0.40	0.34		
Olives, stuffed, brined	70	8	0.55	0.57	0.02	3,750
Onions	34	45	0.45	0.08	0.05	21
Onions, spring	135	24	1.24	0.13		36
Onions, boiled	24	16	0.25	0.07		5
Onions, fried	61	59	0.59	0.16		38
Onions, dehydrated	158	256	3.10			
Opihi, Australian limpet	280	170	1.34	0.23		
Orange juice	19	13	0.28	0.08	Trace	3
Oranges	26	20	0.51	0.13	0.03	6
Ovaltine	339	563	3.50	0.65		404
Oxo cubes	101	1,090	14.00	0.32		14,000
Oyster plant			1.24	0.27	0.35	
Oysters	52	155	3.14	3.07	0.21	590

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769

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(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl a NaCs
ms.	780	620	30 00	1.30			
	73	93	0.52	0.05		151	249
	19	13	0.25				
			19.21	0.21	0.94		
	59	76	1.07	0.12	0.03	30	50
aked	36	32	0.45	0.10		33	54
oast	46	313	7.70			99	163
t	16	54	1.12	0.12		37	61
t, purple,	5	18	0.34				
y, raw	10	49	0.52	0.04		287	473
y, baked	12	60	0.63	0.05		351	578
rt, raw	11	60	0.60	0.05		325	536
rt, baked	14	74	0.74	0.06		399	657
ehydrated	73	397	6.00				
erve	14	15	0.26	0.29			
nned	8	20	0.62	0.10	0.04		
ried	60	120	6.06	0.27	0.67	11	18
esh	10	21	0.36	0.01	0.11	4	6
ter	72	396	1.80				
tter, Heinz	105	76		0.55			
	71	399†	2.31	0.96	1.57	56	92
	9	11					
ned	8	14	0.65				
h	14	17	0.46	0.10	0.06	11	18
l	84	400	5.70	1.40	2.77	35	58
l, cooked	24	113	1.44	0.17		9	15
	28	127	1.77	0.24	0.41	24	40
	13	83	1.22	0.15		8	13
n, cooked	26	169	1.87	0.21		318	524
n, canned	11	122	1.74	0.25		10	16
t, cooked	89	335	2.58	1.36	3.48	50	83
	74	550	6.00	0.50			
Flakes, Kellogg	127	130	10.20	1.13		60	99
ondiment)	8	23	0.41	0.10	0.14	13	21
green			0.56	0.37	0.04		
ellow	22	22				2	3
on	49	308	8.40			108	178
, roast			0.68	0.34	0.02		
Heinz:			0.80	0.22			
cucumber	24	24	0.60	0.18			
s, sour	20	5	1.00	0.12			
s, sweet	19	5	1.00	0.26			
	17	19					
	9	8	1.20	0.21			
	25	34	1.60	0.23			
mustard	27	58	3.83	0.76	0.04		
sweet, mixed	9	160	2.20			75	124
ham"	18	352	9.80			99	163
boiled	16	404	19.40				
roast			0.68	0.34	0.02		
	12	18	0.80	0.24		51	84
ple, canned	8	17	0.32	0.07	1.07		
ple, fresh			7.92	1.17	0.63		
io nuts	45	251	0.80	0.15		174	287
fried	38	246	0.60			112	186
steamed	65	102					
pudding, Heinz	15	11	2.22	0.16	0.07		
canned							

† See page 769.

or ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight,
(*Italicized letters indicate trade names.*)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Zn
Plums, fresh	20	32	0.77	0.15	0.07	2
Plums, Japanese, red, pickled	49		4.20			7.25
Poi, commercial†	22	51				
Pollack, fried	128	241	2.80			273
Pollack, steamed	13	202	0.50			114
Pomegranate	11	105	0.40			3
Pomegranate juice	3	8	0.15	0.07		53
Pork chops, lean	12	219	1.50	0.31	0.06	
Pork chops, loin, grilled, lean	9	211	2.90	0.09		113
Pork chops, loin, grilled, med. fat	8	178	2.40	0.09		72
Pork chops, med. fat	10	179	1.30			
Pork, leg, roast	5	363	1.70			83
Pork, loin, roast, lean	7	206	2.60	0.09		101
Pork, loin, roast, med. fat	7	185	2.30	0.09		77
Pork, loin, smoked, cooked, lean	27	219	2.30			3,100
Pork sausage	2	27	0.22			
Pork sausage, fried	20	141	3.30	0.15		1,390
<i>Post Toasties</i>	55	54	1.67	0.15		1,210
Potato soup	46	52	0.39	0.08		542
Potatoes, sweet, boiled	21	44	0.62	0.15		60
Potatoes, sweet, raw	19	45	0.92	0.15	0.15	94
Potatoes, white, raw	14	58	0.85	0.17	0.10	38
Potatoes, white, new, boiled	5	33	0.46	0.15		46
Potatoes, white, old, boiled	4	29	0.48	0.11		41
Potatoes, white, dehydrated	25	103	3.70			
Potatoes, French fried	14	72	1.35	0.27		140
Potatoes, mashed	12	32	0.45	0.10		71
Potatoes, roast	10	53	0.99	0.20		103
Prawns, cooked	145	349	1.10			2,550
Prune pudding, Heinz	69	54	1.10	0.16		
Prunes, California, 20 per cent water	62	98	4.50	0.31	0.43	27
Prunes, canned	51		1.53	0.15	0.13	
Prunes, dried	58	85	3.80	0.41	0.18	17
Prunes, dried, cooked	15	30	0.81			
<i>Puffed Rice</i>	10	100	1.07	0.56	0.73	
<i>Puffed Wheat</i>	40	420	4.10	0.70	2.72	
Pumpkin	23	46	1.10	0.03	0.04	36
Pumpkin, California, canned	31	14	1.04	0.20	0.29	
Pumpkin, custard	40		1.83	0.09	0.08	

Q

Quail	15	270	3.80			
Quinces	14	19	0.32	0.14	0.04	2

R

Rabbit, stewed	11	199	1.90	0.20		43
Radishes	31	31	1.36	0.16	0.05	54

For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† 70 per cent water

It is now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral values
cereal products. Consult label on food.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Items	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Class NaCl
led	64	132	6.99	0.27	0.32	82	135
less			4.13	0.20	0.34		
at Cereal	50	400	4.00	0.60	4.00		
at Oat	70	430	2.10				
red, fresh	49	52	0.99	0.13	0.51	22	36
juice	21	12					
fresh	44	18	0.86	0.05	0.15	36	59
steamed	72	15	0.28	0.09		61	100
raw	84	290	2.00	0.36	1.70		
ed, cooked	2	24	0.20				
ed, raw	11	99	0.98	0.19	1.08	54	89
ng	138	120	0.14	0.05		133	219
ented, Japan-							
	9	70	0.50				
s, Heinz	12	181	0.40				
ies, Kellogg	11	100	2.67	0.23			
ed	10	100	1.07	0.56	0.73		
baked in vine-							
	13	402	2.30			173	285
fried	17	504	1.60			188	310
ng, fried	16	915	1.50			123	203
	23	241	1.20				
in, enriched	56	100	1.8				
et, unenriched	56	100	0.5				
	45	53	0.42	0.04		73	120
	87	81	2.66	0.21		174	287
as	74	56	1.07	0.15	0.13	58	96
ire	55	385	3.90			25	42
r	18	289	2.83	0.42	1.94	55	91
o	70	400	4.00	0.33	3.50	1,212	2,000

S

canned	66	285	1.30	0.05		865	1,425
fresh	10	245	0.83	0.19	0.01		
fresh, steamed	29	302	0.80			64	105
smoked	26	276	1.30				
boiled	60	53	1.23	0.12		46	76
le	12	Trace	0.30	0.66		60,300	98,820
k, fat	2	42	0.60				
	26	6				87	143
	25	264	1.30				
, canned	409	683	4.00	0.04		1,200	1,980
, canned in oil,							
ed solids	35	365	1.80				
ant	40	10	3.28	0.10			
aut juice							2,500
beef, fried	21	168	4.10	0.17		1,770	3,016
black	31	27	19.50	0.26		1,320	2,175
breakfast	22	86	1.90	0.08		1,300	2,140
pork, fried	20	141	3.30	0.15		1,390	2,290
abbage, boiled	53	27	0.72	0.07		9	15
, steamed	115	338	3.00			410	675
(with egg)	47	118	0.97	0.07		127	209
(without egg)	63	110	0.66	0.08		125	207
cooked	48	34	0.60	0.07		12	20
	18	114	1.04	0.15		71	117
			0.48	0.22	0.02		
, raw	23	241	1.20				
d's pie	15	88	2.31			583	960
ead	16	69	0.62	0.06		141	233

onizable iron. refer to page 769.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight)

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl
<i>Shredded Wheat</i>	41	324	4.50	0.62	2.39	55
<i>Shredded Wheat Biscuit</i>						
Kellogg	43	384	6.88	0.96	2.39	55
Shrimp	96	171	2.67	0.43	0.03	
Shrimp, canned	75	210	2.00			
Shrimps, cooked	320	270	1.80	0.80		5,850
Smelts, fresh water			0.41	0.33	0.03	
Smelts, fried	686	535	3.30			138
Sole, fried	131	260	1.40			193
Sole, steamed	113	270	0.70			132
Soursop	9	30	0.38			
Soy bean curd	34	111	1.80			
Soy bean sauce						8,800
Soy bean milk	34	40				
Soy beans, fermented	88	236	3.70			
Soy beans, green, cooked	97	273	2.10			
Soy beans, whole, mature	227	586	8.00			
Soy flour, flakes, grits:						
Low fat	265	623	13.00			
Medium fat	244	610	13.00			
Full fat	195	553	12.10			
Spaghetti, cooked	4	25	0.21			
Spaghetti, raw	22	144	1.25			
Spaghetti in tomato sauce,						
Heinz	20	29	0.30	0.10		
Spanish melon	14	9	0.24	0.04		45
Spareribs	8	157	2.20			
Spinach, fresh	77	40	4.00	0.12	0.70	74
Spinach, cooked	595†	93	4.00	0.26		55
Sponge cake	35	145	1.61	0.04		103
Sprats, fresh, fried	707	635	4.50			182
Sprats, smoked, grilled	436	565	5.70			1,330
Spring greens, cooked	86	31	1.33	0.08		16
Squab, with skin	12	217	3.00			
Squash, Hubbard	19	28	0.55	0.04	0.16	
Squash, summer, no						
seeds	18	16	0.35	0.08	0.14	
Steak and kidney pie	10	213	5.57			1,192
Stew meat, 73% lean beef	9	170	2.40			
Stew meat, 74% lean veal	11	197	2.70			
Stout	10	23	0.14	0.12		36
Strawberries, fresh	41	28	0.66	0.02	0.06	6
String beans	50	51	0.95	0.10	0.24	24
Sturgeon, steamed	15	263	2.00			138
Suet	6	7	0.40	0.04		18
Suet pudding, plain	45	60	0.41	0.04		156
Sugar, Demerara	53	20	0.89	0.06		35
Sugar, white	1	Trace	0.04	0.02		Trace
Sultanas, dried	52	95	1.82	0.35		15
Sunfish, common			0.34	0.14	0.03	
Surinam-cherry	15	20	0.33			
Swedes, boiled	42	18	0.29	0.04		9
Sweetbreads, stewed	14	596	1.60			74
Sweet potato, boiled	20	43	0.62	0.15		60
Sweet potato, raw	19	45	0.92	0.15		94
Swiss chard	87	40	4.02	0.11	0.80	39
Swiss cheese	1,086	812	1.20	0.13	0.16	
Swordfish	19	195	0.90			
Syrup, English golden	26	20	1.45	0.09		42

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 768

It is now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral values cereal products. Consult label on food.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)
(*Italicized letters indicate trade names.*)

T

Items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Cl as NaCl
	113	96	0.60			7	11
	41	17	0.61	0.09	0.04	2	3
Adding (baked)							
	116	95	0.98	0.04		96	158
w	16	6	1.60		0.69	18	30
ned	26	61					
n	Trace	1	Trace	Trace		Trace	Trace
ne-made	11	10	0.55	0.04		40	66
w	11	26	0.44	0.06	0.14	34	56
led	15	25	0.50	0.12		59	97
nned	7	26	1.20	0.09	0.04		
tsup	11	17	0.87	0.49	0.03		
ice	6	15	0.29	0.03	0.06	55	90
ice, canned			1.30				
ice, Heinz	5	17	0.80	0.05			
ice, Welch	8	15				57	94
nd rice,							
l, Heinz	32	44	1.70	0.66			
x, pickled	31	229	3.00			3,000	4,940
sheep, stewed	11	196	3.40			80	132
black	495	31	9.17	0.43		815	1,340
f	9	42	3.78		0.02		
wed	127	132	1.60			30	50
	33	296	4.00				
	19	204	0.78	0.33†	0.03		
eamed	36	270	1.00			70	116
a, steamed	12	290	1.00			261	430
	24	62				39	64
fish, canned,							
d solids	34	290	1.70				
fish, canned,							
contents	30	252	1.50				
h, canned in oil	26	276	1.30				
h, fresh	19	195	0.90				
steamed	14	188	0.50			142	234
dark meat,							
	23	423					
dark meat, raw	12	231	2.04	0.20	0.05		
light meat,							
	20	373					
light meat, raw	15	277	1.03	0.15	0.03		
reens	347	49	3.48	0.09	1.42	168	277
reens, cooked	98	45	3.08	0.09		15	25
	64	46	0.70	0.09	0.04	41	68
boiled	55	19	0.35	0.04		31	51

V

Wafers	79	39					
p, med. fat	12	215	2.70	0.25	0.03		
et	13	228	3.00	0.25			
cle	15	223	2.50		0.03		
at	15	287	3.60				
e marrow,							
	14	13	0.22	0.03		14	23
(armite)	980	2,620	4.60	0.60	Trace	6,760	11,140
roast	29	286	7.80			89	147
ausage, canned	19	164	0.60				
	15	32	0.47	0.04		47	77
cider	16	13	0.30				

minizable iron, refer to page 769

trout.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight)
(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

W

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe*	Cu	Mn	Cl	Na
Walnuts, black			5.98		3.21		
Walnuts, English	89	358†	2.14	1.00	1.80	40	
Watercress	157	52	7.21	0.04	0.54	91	
Water chestnuts	2	65	1.80				
Watermelon	8	13	0.23	0.07	0.02	8	
Welsh rarebit	409	302	0.69	0.06		832	
Wheat bran	120	1,215	12.70	1.17	9.11	90	
Wheat, breakfast, Heinz	27	291	1.20				
Wheat cereal, Ralston	40	400	4.00				
Wheat, Cream of, cooked			0.83	0.28	0.44		
Wheat, entire	53	374	5.00	0.72	3.44	68	
Wheat flour:							
Patent, enriched	19	93	2.90				
Self-rising, enriched	220	330	2.90				
Whole wheat	38	385	3.80				
Wheat germ	71	1,050	10.00			70	
Wheat, gluten	78	200				50	
Wheat Krispies, Kellogg	50	292	5.00	0.63			
Wheat Krumbles, Kellogg	37	337	10.67	0.53			
Wheat Oats, Ralston	70	430	2.10				
Wheat, Puffed	40	420	4.10	0.70	2.72		
Wheat, refined, break- fast cereal	39	347	4.50	2.40			
Whey	44	35				119	10
Wheat, dried	572	524					
Whitefish	150	263	0.42	0.19			
Whiting, fried	48	258	0.70			194	32
Whiting, steamed	42	189	1.00			93	15
Whole Wheat Flakes, Kellogg	43	374	6.33	0.53			
Whole wheat flour	31	238	2.50			70	116
Whortleberries, fresh	20	18					
Winkles, boiled in salt water	136	219	15.00			1,800	2,900
Winkles, boiled in fresh water	165	277	17.10			500	832

Y

Yam bean, fresh root	9	20	1.90				
Yams	8	41	7.40				
Yeast, Fleischmann	24	561	Trace			Trace	Trace
Yorkshire pudding	101	128	0.68	0.06		662	1,080

* For ionizable iron, refer to page 769.

† See page 769.

It is now customary to restore, fortify or otherwise augment mineral values of cereal products. Consult label on food.

TABLE 72. Mineral Content of Strained and Chopped Foods Prepared for Infant Feeding.

(Estimated in milligrams per 100 grams of moist weight.)

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe	Cu	Mn
FOODS					
Asparagus, green	17	24	0.60 (0.35)*		
Beets	13	17	0.36 (0.31)*		
Broccoli	29	22	0.33 (0.25)*		
Chicken soup	19	27	0.49 (0.38)*	0.06	
Apple rice pudding	41	43	0.23 (0.19)*	0.10	
Apples	11	29	1.02 (0.84)*		
Barley	63	68	0.41 (0.40)*	0.07	
Barley rice pudding	56	37	1.07 (0.71)*		
Beach	20	31	1.03 (0.67)*	0.09	
Beef	36	47	0.61 (0.59)*	0.08	
Lamb	28	30	0.43 (0.28)*	0.15	
Vegetables with bacon					
PREPARED FOODS					
Apple and apricot	12	12	0.27 (0.26)*	0.04	
Apple sauce	30	53	0.36 (0.31)*		
Apples, green	22	21	0.54 (0.30)*		
Asparagus	20	14	0.50 (0.46)*		
Beets	16	14	0.40 (0.41)*		
Broccoli	36	16	0.69 (0.62)*	0.17	
Chicken soup	75	60	0.37 (0.17)*	0.15	
Starch pudding	21	25	3.81 (3.73)*	0.09	
Pea soup	27	26	0.68 (0.40)*	0.11	
Peaches	16	9	0.44 (0.33)*	0.23	
Pears	16	50	0.87 (0.81)*		
Pineapple	49	59	0.32 (0.30)*	0.07	
Pineapple pudding	45	20	0.62 (0.63)*		
Pumpkins	71	43	1.18 (0.77)*		
Spinach	66	66	0.62 (0.61)*	0.20	
Tomatoes with milk	26	36	0.42 (0.41)*	0.13	
Vegetable and beef	29	39	0.52 (0.45)*	0.22	
Vegetable and lamb	24	27	0.53 (0.41)*		
Vegetable soup	27	38	0.28 (0.19)*	0.17	
Vegetables with bacon					
WELL:					
PREPARED SOUPS					
Beef	46	68	0.40	0.17	0.05
Chicken	26	42	0.22	0.24	0.07
Lamb	46	68	0.35	0.12	0.05
Liver	13	65	0.72	0.35	0.17
Vegetable	24	51	0.73	0.24	0.02
COOKED CEREALS, DRY					
Baby cereal	800	580	30.00	2.00	
Baby oatmeal	820	670	30.00	0.80	
SENIOR FOODS					
Apple	6	11	0.65	0.09	
Apple sauce	20	14	0.20	0.19	
Apricots and farina	15	25	0.04	0.10	
Carrots	15	23	0.63	0.27	
Chicken soup	93	82	0.36	0.16	
Chocolate pudding	22	33	0.97	0.11	
Fish chowder	17	13	0.52	0.17	
Peaches	11	10	0.59	0.09	
Pears	54	53	0.42	0.25	
Pineapple pudding	23	30	0.42	0.18	
Prunes	73	37	0.35	0.35	
Spinach	21	29	0.54	0.14	
Vegetable soup	23	27	0.57	0.18	
Vegetables, creamed					

Figure in parentheses is available iron as against total iron.

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Ca</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Fe</i>	<i>Cu</i>	<i>Mg</i>
<i>Clapp:</i>					
JUNIOR FOODS (cont.)					
Vegetables with bacon . . .	22	34	0.56	0.11	
Vegetables with beef . . .	16	35	0.65	0.10	
Vegetables with lamb . . .	23	46	0.25	0.13	
Vegetables with liver . . .	17	53	1.03	0.27	
STRAINED FOODS					
Apple sauce	6	11	0.58	0.04	
Apricots and apples with farina	15	16	0.53	0.09	
Beans, green	32	20	0.22	0.13	
Carrots	26	23	0.03	0.09	
Chicken soup	50	49	0.26	0.10	
Custard pudding	76	78	0.28	0.18	
Liver soup	13	60	0.51	0.46	
Peaches	8	14	0.51	0.11	
Pears	9	12	1.13	0.11	
Peas	18	64	0.63	0.36	
Squash	32	16	0.02	0.10	
Vegetable soup	13	17	0.26	0.13	
Vegetables, creamed	52	65	0.13	0.29	
Vegetables, mixed	19	32	0.70	0.04	
Vegetables with bacon	21	30	0.56	0.17	
Vegetables with beef	14	27	0.40	0.13	
Vegetables with lamb	18	42	0.65	0.17	
<i>Gerber:</i>					
PRECOOKED CEREALS, DRY					
Barley cereal	494	680	51.0		
Cereal food	530	656	50.0		
Strained oatmeal	516	645	46.0		
CHOPPED FOODS					
Apple prune pudding	45	37	0.9		
Beans, green	28	24	1.1		
Carrots	35	21	0.3		
Meats:					
Beef	10	227	7.6		
Liver	13	232	4.4		
Veal	9	430	9.1		
Peaches	3	14	0.9		
Pineapple rice pudding . . .	41	40	0.6		
Spinach	68	50	1.4		
Vegetable and beef	18	32	0.7		
Vegetable and lamb	15	43	0.9		
Vegetable and liver	18	47	1.3		
STRAINED FOODS					
Apple sauce	4	6	0.6		
Apricots with farina	11	19	0.5		
Beans, green	25	24	0.7		
Beets	19	20	0.8		
Carrots	21	19	0.5		
Chocolate custard	96	90	0.5		
Custard pudding	96	87	0.5		
Liver soup	15	76	3.9		
Meats:					
Beef	10	160	5.6		
Liver	9	287	6.5		
Veal	10	158	8.0		
Mixed vegetables	21	39	0.9		
Peaches	4	10	3.1		
Pears	8	13	0.6		
Pear pineapple	14	10	3.1		
Peas	17	63	1.2		
Prunes	21	17	3.4		
Spinach	68	52	1.2		

Food items.	Ca	P	Fe	Cu	Mn
CANNED FOODS (cont.)					
Shrimp	18	17	0.3		
Vegetable and lamb	13	43	0.8		
Vegetable soup	17	45	0.8		
CANNED CEREALS, DRY					
Whole wheat food	780	620	32.0	1.70	
Whole wheat meal	1040	780	32.0	0.85	
CANNED FOODS					
Apple, fig and date dessert	39	19	2.7	0.12	
Broken farina vegetable					
Cabbage	43	72	2.3	0.36	
Chopped carrots	38	21	1.5	0.04	
Chopped green beans	34	25	0.5	0.40	
Chopped mixed vegetables	30	26	5.4	0.04	
Chopped spinach	174	35	2.3	0.08	
Canned diced vegetables	99	61	1.2	0.11	
Canned tomato and rice	32	44	1.7	0.66	
Canned apple rice pudding	51	33	1.4	0.08	
Canned pineapple pudding	69	54	1.1	0.16	
Vegetables with lamb and liver	44	59	0.8	0.38	
CANNED FRUITS					
Apple prune pudding	36	40	0.9	0.12	
Apple sauce	4	3	0.2	0.20	
Apricots and apple sauce	12	19	1.3	0.10	
Apricots with oatmeal	10	22	0.5	0.11	
Beans, green	52	31	0.1	0.07	
Beef and liver soup	21	40	2.2	0.18	
Beef broth with beef and barley	21	39	0.8	0.15	
Beets	17	37	1.6	0.19	
Carrots	29	29	1.0	0.10	
Custard pudding	81	61	0	0.05	
Orange pudding	36	39	0.5	0.12	
Peaches	7	14	0.3	0.06	
Pears and pineapple	14	8	0.8	0.16	
Pears with farina	9	16	0.2	0.05	
Peas	12	83	1.6	0.22	
Prunes	33	32	1.8	0.16	
Spinach	57	39	1.0	0.03	
Tomato soup	22	39	0.9	0.21	
Vegetable soup	26	25	1.0	0.10	
Vegetables and lamb	18	23	0.4	0.10	
STERILIZED FOODS					
Apples and apricots	8	17	1.4		
Apples and prunes	17	19	1.8		
Apple sauce	7	10	0.2		
Apricot-farina	13	18	1.0		
Beans, green	32	34	1.2		
Beets	17	34	0.5		
Carrots	32	28	1.3		
Custard pudding	72	122	0.4		
Fruits, mixed (apricot, peach, pear)	9	20	1.6		
Liver soup	19	81	2.1		
Peaches	10	22	1.3		
Pears and pineapple	11	13	0.8		
Peas	15	53	2.4		
Prunes with pineapple and lemon juices	34	43	5.6		
Spinach	112	27	2.2		
Squash	44	12	0.3		

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Ca</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Pe</i>
<i>Libby:</i>			
HOMOGENIZED FOODS (cont.)			
Vegetable soup	33	80	2 2
Vegetables, garden (carrots, peas, spinach)	45	39	1 3
Vegetables, mixed (green beans, pumpkin, tomato)	26	31	1 2
Vegetables with bacon	16	35	0 6
Vegetables with beef	22	65	2 1
Vegetables with lamb	41	65	0 9
<i>Swift:</i>			
DICED MEATS			
Beef	10	210	3 3
Heart	15	220	4 8
Lamb	18	180	2 4
Liver	30	330	7 2
Pork	14	200	1 5
Veal	11	210	1 6
STRAINED MEATS			
Beef	12	140	2 8
Heart	12	150	3 6
Lamb	16	170	2 3
Liver	40	270	7 7
Pork	14	180	1 7
Veal	17	180	1 6

SULFUR IN FOODS.

Introduction.—In fruits and vegetables the sulfur content is low and exceedingly variable from sample to sample. In its determination considerable sulfur in the form of essential oils may be lost through volatilization. When dried fruits are treated with sulfur dioxide for preservation, unduly high values may be anticipated. The use of sulfate manures increases the sulfate content of the products grown thereon. The enormous sulfur content of carrageen moss is probably due to large quantities of inorganic sulfate.

Sulfur occurs in foods chiefly in organic combination, protein forms being the most important. The sulfur content of the following proteins is from Osborne, cited by Hutchison and Mottram (1936), and is calculated on the dry basis:

	Per cent.		Per cent.
Albumin, serum	1.930	Legumin	0.383
Caseinogen	0.800	Ovalbumin	1.614
Edestin	0.880	Ovovitellin	1.028
Excelsin	1.086	Oxyhemoglobin	0.569
Gliadin	1.027	Zein	0.600

† Food and Dietetics, Hutchison, R., and Mottram, V. H., 9th edition, Baltimore, Wm. Wood & Co., 1941.

TABLE 73.—The Sulfur Content of Various Foods.*

Estimated in milligrams of S per 100 grams of edible substances.)

	Mg. %.	Food items.	Mg. %.
egg's	182.0	Cheese, cheddar	230.0
	145.0	Dutch	186.5
egg, raw	2.9	Gorgonzola	177.0
	7.6	Gruyère	206.0
	6.1	Parmesan	251.0
	1.0	Stilton	228.0
	164.0	St. Ivel	186.0
	1.6	Cherries, cooking, raw	6.8
boe, boiled	15.5	Eating	7.9
boiled	21.6	Glacé	21.0
boiled	46.6	Chestnuts	29.4
	19.4	Chicken, roast	232.0
	13.0	Chicory, raw	12.7
	117.0	Chocolate, milk	67.0
	50.7	Plain	32.0
led	27.0	Cocoa	160.0
w	109.5	Cocoanut	44.0
	47.2	Milk	23.8
boiled	8.3	Cod	171.0
aw	166.5	Baked	256.0
	46.3	Coffee	110.0
	222.0	Corn Flakes, Kellogg's	92.5
	203.0	Crackers:	
	271.0	Cream	77.8
	287.0	Plain	83.4
	212.0	Sweet	31.8
	341.0	Cranberries, raw	11.1
		Cream	33.0
draught	23.2	Cucumber, raw	11.0
d	23.8	Currants, black, raw	33.1
, draught	20.4	Red, raw	28.6
d	25.2	White, raw	23.6
le	34.1	Dried	30.8
	23.1	Curry powder	86.0
ed	22.1	Dates	51.0
es	12.5	Doughnuts	56.4
	362.0	Duck, roast	395.0
leep	108.0	Eel	130.0
s	293.0	Egg white	182.5
ite	54.5	Yolk	164.5
wheat	76.0	Eggplant, raw	9.0
ops, boiled	45.0	Endive	25.7
sprouts, boiled	77.8	Fat, dripping	9.2
rant	73.4	Figs, dried	80.8
	9.1	Green	12.9
red, raw	68.0	Fish paste	185.0
boiled	30.4	Flour, white	108.5
boiled	26.7	Whole wheat	123.5
boiled	23.4	Force	105.0
pe	11.7	Fruit salad, canned	1.8
en moss, dried	5460.0	Ginger, ground	145.0
old, raw	6.9	Goose, roast	326.0
led	5.0	Gooseberries, green	15.9
g, boiled	9.3	Ripe	13.5
wer, boiled	29.4	Grapefruit	5.1
, boiled	12.8	Grape-Nuts, Post's	145.0
raw	14.9	Grapes, black	7.4
	8.3	White	9.1

* Masters, M., and McCance, R. A.: Biochem. Jour., 33, 1308, 1939.

Food items.	Mg. %.	Food items.	Mg. %.
Haddock, fresh	226.0	Peaches	24.0
Smoked	221.0	Canned	1.0
Steamed	227.0	Dried	24.0
Hake	164.0	Peanuts	67.0
Ham, boiled	233.0	Pears, cooking (raw)	3.0
Hare, roast	347.0	Eating	2.0
Hare, stewed,	320.0	Canned	2.0
Hazelnuts	74.5	Peas, fresh, raw	3.0
Herring	212.0	Boiled	40.0
fried	270.0	Dried, raw	125.0
Honey	0.8	Boiled	39.0
Honeycomb	0.8	Split, dried, raw	100.0
Horseradish	212.0	Boiled	43.0
Ice-cream	30.6	Canned	41.0
Jam, edible seeds	6.5	Pepper	96.0
Stone fruits	3.2	Pheasant, baked	302.0
Jelly, com.	36.6	Pineapple	3.0
Kippers	225.0	Canned	1.0
Lamb cutlet	166.0	Plaice	240.0
Lard	24.8	Fried	240.0
Leeks, boiled	48.9	Plums, cooking (raw)	4.0
Lemons, whole	12.3	Damson	0.4
Juice	2.0	Eating	1.0
Lentils, raw	122.5	Greengage	1.0
Boiled	37.3	Pomegranate juice	4.0
Lettuce	11.8	Pork, leg	195.0
Loganberries	18.1	<i>Post Toasties</i>	84.0
Canned	3.0	Potatoes, new, boiled	24.0
Macaroni	95.0	Old, raw	34.0
Mackerel	162.0	Boiled	22.0
Malted Milk, Horlick's	167.0	French fried	44.0
Margarine	12.1	Roast	56.0
Marmalade	2.1	Prawns	335.0
<i>Marmite (Vege)</i>	382.0	Prunes	18.0
Meat paste	131.0	Pumpkin, raw	9.0
Milk, fresh, whole	29.2	Rabbit	169.0
Condensed whole, unsweetened	75.0	Rabbit, stewed	245.0
Condensed whole, sweetened	82.5	Rabbit, <i>see</i> Hare.	
Condensed skim, sweetened	94.3	Radishes	37.5
Mince meat	28.4	Raisins	23.0
Molasses, <i>see</i> Treacle.		Raspberries	17.3
Mulberries	8.8	Rhubarb	8.2
Mushrooms, raw	33.8	Rice	78.6
Fried	73.8	Roe, cod's	212.0
Mussels	326.0	Herring's	175.0
Boiled	262.0	Rusk	107.0
Mustard	1280.0	<i>Ryvita</i>	87.0
Mustard and cress, raw	170.0	Sago (tapioca)	0.5
Mutton chop	197.0	Salmon	192.0
Leg	164.0	Canned	241.0
Nectarines	10.0	Canned in oil	246.0
Oatmeal	155.0	Salsify, boiled	25.2
Olives, brined	35.6	Salt, table	20.0
Onions, raw	50.7	Sausages, beef, fried	163.0
Boiled	23.7	Black	173.0
Fried	87.8	Breakfast	78.5
Spring, raw	50.0	Pork, fried	95.0
Oranges, whole	9.0	Scallops	342.0
juice	4.6	Seakale, boiled	32.0
<i>Ovaltine</i>	183.0	Semolina	94.8
<i>Oxo</i>	321.0	Shrimp	330.0
Parsnips, raw	16.5	Smelts	168.0
Boiled	14.6	Sole, Dover	133.0
Passion fruit	18.7	Spinach, boiled	80.0

TABLE 73 (CONTINUED). The Sulfur Content of Various Foods.

Items.	Mg. %.	Food items.	Mg. %.
Smoked	222.0	Trout, rainbow	169.0
Beans, boiled	28.5	Turbot	188.0
Peas	13.4	Turkey, roast	234.0
Turnips, raw	20.0	Turnips, raw	22.1
Turnips, boiled	14.0	Turnip tops, boiled	39.0
Veal	39.1	Veal	191.0
Potatoes, boiled	30.5	Vegetable marrow, boiled	5.5
"Golden" corn	14.9	Vegetable marrow, boiled	5.5
Wheat	53.8	Vinegar	18.6
Wheat (minute)	10.3	Walnuts, English	104.0
Wheat (large)	3.5	Watercress	127.0
Wheat (large)	177.0	Whelks	401.0
Wheat (large)	10.7	Whiting	257.0
Wheat (large)	9.2		
Wheat (large)	68.5		

BROMINE CONTENT OF FOODS.

Production.—Geographic location and climatic conditions are determining factors in the bromine content of foodstuffs. Those of the same origin or grown near the sea are always relatively richer than those produced inland. Comparative data are shown in Table 74. There is also a selective affinity on the part of the bromine for different plant tissues. The green parts are invariably richer than the roots of the same plant. Cereal grains are relatively low in bromine. Although fruits frequently contain very little of this element, there are outstanding exceptions as watermelon, muskmelon, and tomatoes.

Methods for ascertaining the bromine content of foods are thoroughly discussed by Neufeld. Analyses by this investigator compare on the whole with those of Damiens and Blaignon, although the latter tend to be higher. The source of the French material is not so clearly defined as in the case of the figures from western Canada.

TABLE 74.—Bromine Content of Some Foods.*

Food items.	Br in dried material, mg. %.	Food items.	Br in dried material, mg. %.
Almonds (Fr.)	Negligible	Milk (i)	0.06
Apples (c)	0.30	Millet (Fr.)	0.30
(Fr.)	Trace	Mushrooms (Fr.)	0.14-0.15
Apricots (Fr.)	0.28	Muskmelon (Fr.)	0.45
Artichokes (Fr.)	0.98	Oats (Fr.)	0.25-0.30
Jerusalem (Fr.)	0.62	Onions (Fr.)	0.16-0.20
Asparagus (Fr.)	2.02	Oranges (Fr.)	0.30
Bananas (Fr.)	0.54	Oranges (c)	0.60
Barley (Fr.)	0.55-0.56	Peel	0.40
Beans, favé (Fr.)	0.18	Parsnips (i)	1.20
Haricot verts (Fr.)	0.64	Peaches (c)	<0.20
Mature (Fr.)	Trace	(Fr.)	Trace
Beets (i)	<0.20	Pears (c)	0.37
(Fr.)	0.37-0.55	(Fr.)	0.60
Bread, white (Fr.)	0.09-0.61	Peas, mature (Fr.)	Negligible
Whole wheat (Fr.)	0.68	Pods (Fr.)	0.21
White (i), unwrapped	0.70	Plums (Fr.)	0.33
Wrapped	0.30	Potatoes (i)	Negligible
Cabbage (c)	2.50	(Fr.)	<0.20
(i)	0.20	Quinces (Fr.)	0.27-0.30
(Fr.)	0.45	Radishes (Fr.)	Negligible
Carrots (c)	3.60	Raspberries (c)	0.83
(i)	<0.20	(Fr.)	0.90
(Fr.)	0.39	Rhubarb (i)	Trace
Cauliflower (Fr.)	0.67-0.73	(Fr.)	0.90
Celeriac (Fr.)	0.38-0.47	Rice (Fr.)	0.75
Celery (c)	17.6	Rye (i)	Trace
Cherries (Fr.)	Trace	(Fr.)	0.55†
Corn (i)	0.6†	(Fr.)	0.19
(Fr.)	0.15-0.19	Shallots (Fr.)	0.52
Cucumber (i)	4.0	Strawberries (Fr.)	0.71
Currants, black (Fr.)	0.094	Tangerines (Fr.)	0.53
Red (Fr.)	0.088-0.17	Tomato (c)	1.40
Figs (Fr.)	0.18	(i)	0.30
Flour (Fr.)	0.09-0.12	(Fr.)	0.95-5.34
Fungi, edible (Fr.)	0.19-3.62	Turnips (c)	2.40
Garlic (Fr.)	0.44	(Fr.)	0.31-0.86
Grapes (c)	1.10	Turnip greens (c)	4.25
(Fr.)	0.195	Watermelon (Fr.)	26.20
Grapefruit (c)	0.90	Wheat (i)	0.10†
Peel	<0.30	(Fr.)	0.21
Leeks (Fr.)	0.30	Wheat-germ flour (i)	0.10
Lentils, dry (Fr.)	1.00	Oil (i)	<0.03
Lettuce (i)	1.90	Yeast, top (Fr.)	0.30

* Data from Neufeld, A. H. (Canad. Jour. Res., 14, Sec. B., 160, 1936) are grouped according to source of food as inland (i) or coastal (c); analyses of Damiens, A., and Blaignon, S. (Compt. rend., 193, 1460, 1931; Ibid., 194, 2077, 1932) are indicated by (Fr.)

† On fresh basis.

IODINE IN FOODS.

action. — Methods for determination of iodine where it occurs in small amounts are far from satisfactory. No figure has been given in Table 75 which was not considered acceptable. The analytical difficulties, however, must not be overlooked. Since iodine in many instances is a highly variable and accidental constituent of food, the tabulated data should be carefully evaluated. Some analyses are reported on both the wet and dry basis. Because of the wide variation in the water content of food samples, because of the minute concentration of iodine, data on the dried material are more satisfactory to the analyst. Figures for fresh food, however, are more readily evaluated by the analyst. The iodine concentration is expressed in a variety of units, as parts per million or billion (thousand million), as gamma cent, as micrograms per kilogram, as milligrams per kilogram. One gamma (γ or μg.) is 0.001 mg. or one-millionth of a gram.

mg. I per kg.	=	p.p.m.
1000 (mg. I per kg.)	=	p.p.b.
γ per gram	=	p.p.m.
γ per cent	=	p.p. 100 m.
γ per kilo	=	p.p.b.

Example, 0.450 mg. I per kg. = 0.450 p.p.m. = 450 p.p.b. = 450 γ per kg.

Served fish and fishery products contain iodine in quantities comparable to those of fresh fish. Fish roes are especially rich in iodine. Liquors from canned shell-fish have a high iodine content. There are a few sea-foods which rank higher in iodine content than others, but these are usually not so widely distributed, nor so easily obtainable. The iodine of shrimp and crab is concentrated in the non-edible portion (Coulson).

The iodine content of plants is at a maximum in autumn and winter. Plants grown on the same soil take up varying amounts of iodine. Onions and asparagus appear to pick up more than other vegetables. The latter in turn exceed the legumes which absorb less iodine from the earth than the cereals. The fruits take up less iodine. Iodine uptake tends to vary directly with the amount available for the growing crop.

Iodine is more plentiful in those parts of plants where green matter is most intense. Young green leaves contain more iodine than isolated leaves, stems more than roots, and leaves than stems (Jarvis *et al.*, 1935).

The effect of cooking upon Chinook salmon is given by Jarvis:

444 p.p.b. (fresh)	Raw	524 p.p.b.	Raw	522 p.p.b.
422 p.p.b. (fresh)	Boiled	528 p.p.b.	Fried	566 p.p.b.

TABLE 75.—Iodine Content of Various Foods.

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Source	D = dry F = fresh	
Abalone	Pacific Coast	F	1.65
Agar-agar		F	1.65
Albacore	Pacific	F	94
Albacore*	Pacific	D	79
Alewives†		F	26
		D	59
Alfalfa	Nebraska	D	66
Alfalfa	Goitrous region	D	47
Alfalfa	N. goitrous region	D	64
Almond		D	3
Almond oil		D	3
Apples	Nebraska	D	86
Apples	Oregon, goitrous	D	3
Apple sauce	Ohio	F	123
Artichokes	South Carolina	D	182
Asparagus	California	D	12
Asparagus	Pennsylvania	F	108
		D	1.38
Asparagus	South Carolina	D	282
Asparagus†	Ohio	F	51
Bacon	Ohio	F	142
Banana	America	F	290
Banana	Spain	F	5
Banana	Italy	F	28
Barley	N. goitrous	D	73
Barracuda	Pacific	F	294
Bass, black	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	10
		D	40
Bass, black	Potomac River	F	50
		D	190
Bass, black	Washington	F	178
Beans*	Mississippi	D	994-1,315
Beef, roasted	Ohio	F	92
Beet tops	South Carolina	D	657
Beets	California	D	8
Beets	Florida	D	220
Beets	Oregon	D	19
Beets	South Carolina	D	182
Beets†	Ohio	F	38
Bing cherries	Oregon, goitrous	D	33
Black bullhead	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	10
		D	40
Blueberries	South Carolina	D	208
Bluefish		F	260
		D	1,870
Bluegill	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	40
		D	180
Bowfin	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	20
		D	80
Bread, white	Ohio	F	132
Bread, whole wheat	Ohio	F	168
Broccoli†	Ohio	F	34
Buffalofish	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	38
		D	132
Buffalofish, big mouth	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	26
		D	26
Buffalofish, razorback	Iowa, Mississippi River	F	26
		D	26
Burbot	Atlantic	D	8
Butter	Ohio	F	14
Cabbage	Florida	D	12

* Canned.

† Cooked.

‡ Smoked

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

(*Italicized letters indicate trade names.*)

Items.	Source.	D = dry, F = fresh	Parts per billion
	Nebraska	D	62
	South Carolina	D	263
	Goitrous	D	7
	N. goitrous	D	30
	Ohio	F	20
	Ohio	F	21
Chinese	Ohio	D	300
Chinese	South Carolina	F	23
e	Ohio	F	10
	Iowa, Mississippi River	D	40
		F	12
	Washington	D	8
	California	D	240
	Florida	D	220
	Nebraska	D	2
	Oregon, goitrous	D	213
	South Carolina	D	170
	N. goitrous	F	11
	Ohio	D	43
		F	420
	South Carolina	D	1,940
		F	10
channel	Iowa, Mississippi River	D	40
		D	14
	California	F	123
	Ohio	D	655
leaves	Florida	D	291
stalks	Florida	D	992
Swiss	Florida	F	61
cottage	Ohio	D	33
s	America	F	15
its		D	30-80
ate		F	65
ate beverage	Ohio	F	240
	Lake Erie	D	550
		F	270
oe†	Lake Erie	D	870
		F	1,370
hard	America	D	6,200
		F	833
Little Neck	Pacific	F	420
minced	New England	D	1,970
		F	1,382
razor	Pacific	D	80
		D	87
butter		D	95
nut oil		F	240
	America	D	1,000
		F	1,030
	Massachusetts and New	D	5,350
	York	F	254
	Pacific	F	660
salt		D	1,200
		D	2,230
sh, buck roe		F	340
sh cakes*		D	1,150
		D	1,510
sh roe*		F	310
sh, shredded*		D	1,520
		D	7,670
liver oil	Maine and New York	D	3,370
liver oil, crude	Scandinavia	D	7,200
liver oil, refined	Scandinavia	D	

† Smoked

† Smoked

† Cooked.

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food item.	Source.	D = dry. F = fresh	
Coffee	Brazil	D	
Collards	Florida	D	
Collards	Georgia	D	
Collards	South Carolina	D	
Conch	Florida	F	
		D	
Corn	Goitrous	D	
Corn	Nebraska	D	
Corn	N. goitrous	D	
Corn	Kentucky	D	
Corn, Country Gentleman*	Maryland	D	
Corn, sugar*	Maryland	D	
Corn, sweet	Pennsylvania	F	
		D	
Corn†	Ohio	F	
Crabs, Dungeness	Pacific	F	
Crabs, King	Pacific	F	
Crabs, soft		D	
Crabmeat	South Carolina	F	
		D	
Crabmeat*	Oregon	F	
		D	
Crabmeat*	Virginia	F	
		D	
Crabmeat*	Japanese	D	
Crabmeat flakes, blue	America	F	
		D	
Cranberries	Cape Cod	D	
Cranberries	Cape Cod	F(?)	
Cream, 20 per cent	Ohio	F	
Cream, whipped	Ohio	F	
Cucumbers	Florida	D	
Cucumbers	South Carolina	D	
Dasheens	Florida	D	
Dates	Italy	F	
Dewberries	Florida	D	
Dewberries	South Carolina	D	
Eel		D	
Egg	Ohio	F	108 per egg
Eggplant	Florida	D	
Eggplant	South Carolina	D	
Figs, dried	Italy	F	
Finnan haddie*		F	
		D	
Flounder	Atlantic	F	
		D	
Flounder	Washington	F	
Flounder, winter		F	
		D	
Flounder, winter	Cape Cod	F	
Gar pike	Mississippi River	F	
		D	
Grapes, dried	Spain	F	
Grape juice	Ohio	F	
Grapefruit		F	
Haddock	America	F	
		D	
Haddock	Massachusetts	F	
		D	
Haddock	New York	F	
		D	

* Canned.

† Cooked.

‡ Smoked.

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Source.	D = dry. F = fresh.	Parts per billion.
salted		F	320
		D	680
	America	F	250
		D	830
	Washington	F	304
		D	15
	Washington	F	214
salted		F	490
		D	890
		F	530
		D	1,000
milt†		D	600
roe	Washington	F	951
roe*		D	3,790
roe†		D	800
	Florida	D	250
	South Carolina	D	278
hop	Ohio	F	146
	America	D	7
juice		F	52
de	Ohio	F	68
	Florida	D	215
	Georgia	D	298-428
	Nebraska	D	71
	Ohio	F	42
	South Carolina	D	912
	Goitrous	D	8
	N. goitrous	D	30
beans	Maryland	D	50
beans, green*	Maryland	D	37-69
		D	1,200
	Washington	D	138
oil		D	54
	America	F	1,380
		D	11,590
r, spring	Pacific	F	322
r*		F	1,330
		D	5,320
		D	160
berries	Oregon	F	530
rel, common	Massachusetts	D	1,280
		F	400
rel, common, salted		D	660
		F	400
rel, Spanish		D	1,410
		F	230
rel, Spanish	Washington	D	160
	Brazil	F	271
	Ohio	D	67
nnaise	Maryland	D	320
whole	Nebraska	F	33
whole	Ohio	D	10
whole	Goitrous	D	25
whole	N. goitrous	D	91
skim	Maryland	D	12
skim	Minnesota	F	84
malted	Ohio	D	400
goat's	California	F	4,850
t	Florida and South Caro-	D	20,490
	lina	F	290
t, salted		D	560

anned.

† Cooked.

‡ Smoked.

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food items.	Source.	D = dry. F = fresh.	
Mussels	Atlantic	D	
Mussels	Pacific	F	
Mussels, sea*		F	
		D	
Mussels, liquor*		D	
Mustard greens	Mississippi	D	
Mustard greens	South Carolina	D	
Oats	Minnesota, goitrous	D	
Oats	N. goitrous	D	
Oats, rolled†	Ohio	F	
Okra	South Carolina	D	
Olive oil		D	
Onions	Florida	D	
Onions	Nebraska	D	
Onions	South Carolina	D	
Orange juice		F	
Oysters	Atlantic	F	
		D	
Oysters	Maryland	D	
Oysters	Pacific	F	
Oysters	Japan	F	
Oysters*		F	
		D	
Oysters, liquor*		D	
Oyster juice, fresh		F	
		D	
Peaches	Oregon, goitrous	D	
Peaches	South Carolina	D	
Peaches*	Ohio	F	
Peanuts	Spain	D	
Peanut oil		D	
Pears	Nebraska	D	
Pears	Oregon, goitrous	D	
Pears, green	California	D	
Pears, ripe	South Carolina	D	
Pears, Bartlett*	Ohio	F	
Peas	California	D	
Peas*	Pennsylvania	D	
Pep, Kellogg		F	
Peppers, Bell	Florida	D	
Perch, salt water	Pacific	F	
Perch, white		F	
		D	
Perch, yellow	Potomac River	F	
		D	
Periwinkle		D	
Pickrel	Potomac River	F	
		D	
Pimentos	Georgia	D	
Pimentos	South Carolina	D	
Pineapple*		F	
Plums, fresh	Ohio	F	
Pollock		F	
		D	
Pollock	Massachusetts	F	
Pompano		F	
		D	
Poppyseed oil		D	
Potatoes	Florida	D	
Potatoes	Georgia	D	
Potatoes	Idaho	D	
Potatoes	Maine	D	

* Canned.

† Cooked.

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

‡ Smoked.

(*Italicized letters indicate trade names.*)

Food item.	Source.	D = dry. F = fresh.	Parts per billion.
			38-68
	Maryland	D	94
	Michigan	D	86
	Minnesota	D	Trace
	Nebraska	D	78
	North Dakota	D	40-93
	Pennsylvania	F	150-240
		D	211
	South Carolina	D	8
	Goitrous	D	350
	N. goitrous	D	34
	Ohio	F	41
boiled	Ohio	F	101
mashed	Florida	D	98
sweet	South Carolina	D	5
sweet	Oregon	D	50
	Ohio	F	32
dried†	Europe	F	200
		D	10
		F	32
	India	F	151
	Italy	F	200
crispies, Kellogg		D	312
ga	South Carolina	D	3
ga tops	Mississippi	D	42
	N. goitrous	D	364
		F	670
a, Chinook	Washington	F	2,010
a, Chinook*	Alaska	D	242
		F	220
n, Chum	Washington	F	810
n, Chum*	Alaska	D	230
		F	760
n, Coho*	Alaska	D	264
		F	210
n, pink	Washington	F	670
n, pink*	Alaska	D	405
		F	530
n, red	Washington	F	1,710
n, red*	Alaska	D	206
		F	1,261
on, silver		D	1,314
on, sockeye	Washington	D	1,980
on, steelhead	Washington	D	1,050
on oil	Alaska and Washington	D	1,510
ines*	California	D	600
ines*	Maine	D	260
ines, salted		D	470
ine oil	California	D	799
ine oil	Maine	F	150
ops	Pacific	F	810
ops, giant		D	300
		F	950
		D	900
		D	30
weed, dried	Atlantic	D	306
ame oil		F	1,132
d	Washington	F	4,100
d roe	Washington	F	375
d roe*	Washington	F	230
imp	Pacific	F	1,100
imp	Georgia, Louisiana and	D	450
	South Carolina	F	2,250
imp, headed		D	

† Smoked.

† Cooked.

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

Canned

(Italicized letters indicate trade names.)

Food item.	Source.	D = dry, F = fresh.	
Shrimp*		F	
		D	
Shrimp†	Georgia and Alabama	F	
		D	
Smelt		F	
		D	
Smelt	Columbia River	F	
Snapper, red	Florida and Alabama	F	
		D	
Snapper, red	Washington	F	
Soup vegetables	Oregon, goitrous	D	
Spinach	California	D	
Spinach	Florida	D	
Spinach	Georgia	D	
Spinach	Maryland	D	
Spinach	Nebraska	D	
Spinach	Oregon, goitrous	D	
Spinach	South Carolina	D	
Spinach	N. goitrous	D	
Spinach†	Ohio	F	
Squash	Florida	D	
Squash, summer	South Carolina	D	
Squid	Pacific	F	
Strawberries	Florida	D	
Strawberries	South Carolina	D	
String beans	Florida	D	
String beans	Maryland	D	
String beans	Pennsylvania	F	
		D	
String beans	Oregon, goitrous	D	
String beans	South Carolina	D	
String beans*	Mississippi	D	
Sturgeon	Washington	F	
Sugar		F	
Tapioca		D	
Tea	Ceylon	F	
Tea, green	China	F	
Tomatoes	California	D	
Tomatoes	Nebraska	D	
Tomatoes	Ohio	F	
Tomatoes	Pennsylvania	F	
		D	
Tomatoes	South Carolina	D	
Tomatoes*	Florida	D	
Tomatoes*	Maryland	D	
Tomatoes*	Mississippi	D	
Tomato juice	Ohio	F	
Trout	Lake Erie	F	
		D	
Trout, brook	Washington	F	
Trout, rainbow	Washington	F	
Trout, salmon		D	
Trout, steelhead	Washington	F	
Tuna, bluefin	Pacific	F	
Tuna, bluefin*		F	
		D	
Tuna, yellowfin	Pacific	F	
Turnip tops	Florida	D	
Turnip tops	Georgia	D	
Turnip tops	Mississippi	D	
Turnip tops	South Carolina	D	
Turnips	Florida	D	
Turnips	South Carolina	D	

* Canned.

† Cooked.

‡ Smoked

N. goitrous = non-goitrous.

(*Italicized letters indicate trade names.*)

Food items.	Source.	D = dry, F = fresh.	Parts per billion
.	Ohio	F	68
(armite)		F	180
.		D	30
ak*		F	<10
.		D	<40
lon	South Carolina	D	402
.	Canada	D	3-6
.	Minnesota, N. goitrous	D	1-7
.	Nebraska	D	0
.	N. goitrous	D	4-9
.		F	30
.	Lake Erie	F	30
.		D	110
.		D	300
canned.	† Cooked.	‡ Smoked	
	N. goitrous = non-goitrous.		

ANTITHYROID EFFECT OF FOODS IN MAN

It is recognized that goiter may develop in laboratory animals in man despite presumably adequate intake of iodine. Over the past 20 years evidence has been accumulating to indicate that there are agents in certain foods which are capable of inhibiting the utilization of iodine by the thyroid gland. Probably more than one substance possesses activity as heating is destructive in some instances but not in others. Apparently water-soluble, the active principle may be leached out in cooking water. It is unlikely that the iodine content of any of the foods, except clams and oysters, was great enough to diminish uptake of I^{131} . Individual foods may show a variable effect; cabbage, for example, becomes more potent with approach of winter. Many persons undoubtedly consume quantities of such food without visible effect, but occasionally the circumstances are just right for thyroid hyperplasia.

TABLE 76.—Goitrogenic Foods*

Food items.	Grade.	Food items.	Grade.
Almonds, raw	0	Milk, past.	0 to 2
Apples, raw	0	Mustard, dry	0
Apricots, dried	1	Mushrooms, cooked	0
Bananas, raw	0	Olives, pickled green	0
Beans, baked, canned	1	Onions, raw	0
black, cooked	0	Orange juice, fresh	1
lima, cooked	0	Oysters, raw	0 to 2
string, raw	1 to 2	Peaches, froz.	2
cooked	0	Peanuts, raw or roasted	1 to 2
Beefsteak, raw	0	Pears, raw	1 to 2
Beets, cooked	1	juice, fresh	2
Blackberries, froz.	0	canned	0
Broccoli, cooked	0	Peas, raw or cooked	1 to 2
Bonita, canned	0	Pineapple, canned	0
Cabbage, raw	0 to 3	Potatoes, raw or boiled	0
Carrots, raw	0 to 3	Radishes, raw	0
cooked	1	Raisins, Thompson seedless	1 to 2
Cauliflower, cooked	0	Raspberries, froz.	0
Celery, raw	0 to 3	Rice, boiled	0
Cheese, Amer., past.	0	Rutabaga, raw	3 to 5
Clams, raw	1	puréed raw	2
Corn, froz.	0	juice, raw	2
Cucumbers, raw	0	cooked	0 to 1
Custard, baked	1	Rye bread	0
Dates, dried	0	Salt, NaCl	0
Filberts, raw	1	Sardines, canned	0
Grapefruit, raw	2	Shrimp, boiled	0
Grapes, fresh Tokay	0	Spinach, cooked	0 to 2
Green peppers, raw	1	Squash, banana, cooked	0
Ice cream	0	Strawberries, froz.	0 to 5
Lettuce, raw	1 to 2	Tangerines, raw	0
Liver, broiled	1	Tomatoes, raw	0
Lobster, boiled	0	juice, fresh	0
Loganberries, froz.	0	Turnips, raw or cooked	0 to 2
Melon, honey dew	1	Walnuts, raw	1 to 2

* Greer, M. A., and Astwood, E. B.: *Endocrinology* **43**, 105, 1948.

Antithyroid activity was measured by observing the inhibition of radioactive iodine (I^{131}) uptake according to Stanley, M. M. and Astwood, E. B.: *Endocrinology* **41**, 66, 1947. Foods tested were eaten to satiety and the results graded arbitrarily: 0—no inhibition; 1—slight or questionable; 2—moderate depression without complete inhibition; 3—complete inhibition for less than 4 hrs.; 4—complete inhibition for 4 to 24 hrs.; 5—complete inhibition lasting 24 hrs.

VITAMINS IN FOODS.

action.—For normal development and growth, for maintenance of full health and for production of hardy offspring, certain part from carbohydrates, fats, proteins and minerals are in the diet. Among these essential food factors are vitamins which occur in Nature in minute amounts.

At the beginning recognition of these agents, it was customary to express the vitamin content of foods by use of letters, as G for glycine, by employing plus or minus signs. Everyone looked forward to the day when vitamins could be designated in conventional units, such as milligrams per unit weight. More and more methods have been devised to make this possible. As a result a considerable amount of numerical data on vitamins is available. These tabulations present frequent conflicts, a food by methods used in a given laboratory, or one or more laboratories showing a fair concentration of a certain vitamin and yet appearing at a later date to have no such content. Likewise, foods placed in the "nil" class in some figures may feature satisfactory concentrations in other figures. Even under precisely controlled conditions various samples of the same food may reveal widely separated vitamin values. One is tempted to ask what it all means.

In the opinion of the compiler of the estimated values shown in the following tables that one should regard vitamin content as "subject to change without notice". The average person who deals with the practical aspects of diet-making is better off with vitamin content expressed in terms of plus signs or letters which indicate the general category into which the specific food probably falls with respect to a particular vitamin. Then, there is little opportunity to calculate precisely. With numerical values, however, the person unfamiliar with problems of vitamin assay almost always leans the weight of a decision upon these figures. Such dependence and reliance is misplaced, largely because humanity has too great a reliance on figures per se.

Consistency would require that a generalized table minus all other remarks accompany these remarks. Unfortunately, nobody would use such a table when figures were to be had in other works. The table, found in previous editions, is in fact deleted. In going to modern styles in vitamin tables, we can do no more than to guard against their unfair use in evaluating either a single food or a diet.

NUMERICAL VALUES FOR THE VITAMIN CONTENT OF COMMON FOODS-

The data herein assembled comes from many sources chief of which are

- BOAS-FIXSEN, M. A. B. and ROSCOE, M. H.: Tables of Vitamin Content of Human and Animal Foods. *Nutr. Abstr. and Rev.* **7**, 823, 1938; **9**, 77, 1939.
- BOOHER, L. E., and HARTZLER, E. R.: The Vitamin B₁ Content of Foods in terms of Crystalline Thiamine, U.S. Dept. Agric., Tech. Bull. No. 75, Washington, 1939.
- BOOHER, L. E., HARTZLER, E. R., and HEWSTON, E. M.: A Compilation of Vitamin Values of Foods in Relation to Processing and Other Variables. U.S. Dept. Agric., Circ. No. 638, Washington, 1942.
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- CHELDELIN, V. H., and WILLIAMS, R. J.: The Vitamin B Content of Food. Univ. Texas Publications, No. 4237, 1942.
- DANN, W. J. and HANDLER, P.: The Nicotinic Acid Content of Meat. *Jour. Nutr.* **24**, 153, 1942.
- EMMERIE, A., and ENGEL, C.: The Vitamin E Content of Foods. *Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie*, **13**, 259, 1943.
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- McVICAR, R. W. and BERRYMAN, G. H.: Nicotinic Acid in Foods. *Jour. Nutr.* **24**, 235, 1942.
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- The Riboflavin Content of Some Common Foods, *Food Research* **7**, 85, 1942.
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- THOMPSON, M. L., CUNNINGHAM, E., SNELL, E. E.: Nutritive Value of Canned Foods in Riboflavin and Pantothenic Acid, *Jour. Nutr.* **28**, 123, 1944.
- Tables of Food Composition in Terms of Eleven Nutrients. U. S. Dept. Agric. Misc. Publ. No. 572, 1945.

Possible Use of Tabulated Data.—There is no scientific justification for listing the day's menu, calculating the vitamin content, adding the figures together to obtain the total. The values shown in the table should be employed in judging whether or not a given food contributes a significant amount of vitamins to the diet. The table also permits intelligent selection of suitable sources of the desired vitamins. The variability of samples of the same food frequently is marked. Milk, for example, has been found to vary from 100 to 400 I.U. of vitamin A and butter from less than 1000 to more than 6000 I.U. It should be stressed that the figures shown in the tables are representative rather than averaged values.

Coming from the extensive review of Munsell, "It is desirable to have a set of values showing the quantities of the various vitamins in different foods. In the general discussion of food sources of vitamins it was made clear that no food has a fixed and invariable content of any vitamin. Values for different samples of food may vary over wide ranges depending upon the factors which influence the content of the vitamins it contains." For practical dietetic purposes an intelligent selection of representative values becomes necessary. "Some values in the table may differ slightly from corresponding ones in other summaries. Too much concern should not be felt over such discrepancies, perhaps, since values of this kind are, as explained, arbitrarily selected and their approximation to actual fact is problematical in any case."

TABLE 77.—Occurrence of Fat-soluble Vitamins in Some Foods.
(Estimated per 100 grams moist weight.)*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Vitamin A (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin D (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin E (mg.)</i>	<i>Vitamin K</i>
leaf meal, dry	8000			xx
ls	0-75			
.	50-90			
e, canned	60			
s	2790-4000			
ed	1350			
l	5000-7430			
kes, globe	200-390			
rus, green	700-1400			
hed	0-50			
ed	600			
ed	960			
os	100-290			
.	0			
o shoots	22			
.	300-430			
powder	750			
.	0		3.2-5.2	

Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

(Estimated per 100 grams moist weight.)*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Vitamin A (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin D (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin E (mg.)</i>	<i>Vitamin K</i>
Beans, green, cooked:				
Kidney	900			
Lima	280			
Canned	130			
Snap	630-2000			
Canned	410			
Soy	200-350			
Wax	350			
Beans, dried, cooked:				
Kidney	0		1 2	
Lima	0-100			
Navy	0		4 0	
Soy	100			xxx
Baked with tomato	70			
Beef, lean	20		x	Trace
Beet tops	6700-21,000	Nil		xx
Beets	0-20		0 2	
Blackberries	75-150			
Black currants	400			
Black-eye peas— <i>see</i> Cowpeas				
Blueberries	50-280			
Brazil nuts	10			
Bread, "brown"	0		2 1	
White	0		1 4	
Fortified		x		
Broccoli, entire plant	9000	Nil	xx	xx
Cooked, flowers	3000-5000			
leaves	7300-16,000			
stem	1000			
Brussels Sprouts, cooked	400-640		1 7	x
Butter, average	3300	80	2 1-3 3	Nil
summer	up to 20,000	150		
Butter, goat's	900			
Cabbage:				
Young, partly green	150			x
Green, cooked	80-170			
Mature, white	0		0 7	
Red	40		0 2	
Dehydrated, unsulfited	520			
Cantaloupe	300-3400			
Carrot tops	xxx	Nil	xx	xxx
Carrots, cooked	10,000-12,000		1 5	
Canned	12,000			
Dehydrated	117,000			
Cauliflower	30-90			xx
Celery cabbage	9000			
Celery, green	1000		2 6	
Bleached	0-10			
Chard	2800-14,500	Nil	xx	xx
Cheese:				
Camembert	3610			
Cheddar	1200-2000			
Canned	1260			
Cottage, skim milk	60-175			
Cream	2000-2210			
Kraft, Amer.	2160			
Eng.	3070			
Parmesan	900			
Roquefort	2500-4000			
Swiss	1970-2700			
20% fat			0 6	
10% fat			0 3	

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

(Estimated per 100 grams moist weight.)*

Food items.	Vitamin A (I.U.)	Vitamin D (I.U.)	Vitamin E (mg.)	Vitamin K
15 800, av. 150				
ts, fresh	80			
	0			
s	Trace			
carne, plain, canned	160			
	500			
ilk	480			
ed	36			
tened	60			
	14 200			
owder, breakfast type	26		3 1	
n fat	17		12 5	
	0			
, dry		Nil	3 0	
oil	0	52		Nil
	85,000†	8500†	0	Nil
oil	7000 12,200			
	0 50			
reet, white	390 600			
ow	200			
canned	330 550		10 0	
ried	0			
al, white	300			
w, degerminated	510 750			
ole	0	0	104-110	Nil
, refined	0	0	83-92	Nil
eed oil, refined	0 30			
s	20 70			
berries	30			
, canned	660			
hydrated	600 830	Traces		
20%	1640			
mer	0 Trace			
bers, pared	260			
a skin	400			
ts, black	120			
	9000-13,650	Nil	xx	xx
lion greens				
cured:	0			
rocessed, Deglet Noor	350			
essed, Saidy	14,000	Nil	xx	xx
leaves	660-18,500	474		
	1140		3 0	
whole, fresh	4460			
ried	3210	Trace-xx	x	x
k, fresh	3760			
ummer	1880			
Winter	0	Nil		
ite, fresh	30-100			
ant	10,000-15,000	Nil	2 0	xx
ce, oscarole	4000		0 2	
ench chieory	0			
a	10 50			
fresh	60 115			
ed	xxx	xxx	0	0
liver oils				
r:	0			
ye	70			
y, low fat	110			
med. fat	140			
full fat	0			
heat				

† Consult label on product.

(Estimated per 100 grams moist weight.)*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Vitamin A (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin D (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin E (mg.)</i>	<i>Value E</i>
Flour: Wheat 70% extraction	0		1.7	
82% extraction	0		2.7	
Whole-grain	0		1 2-3 4	
Germ	0		27.0	
Gooseberries	380			
Grapefruit	0-20			
Grapes	0-80			
Green vegetables	xx	Nil		xx
Leafy	xxx	Nil	xx	xxx
Guavas	200			
Hazelnuts	100			
Heart, fresh	0-200			
Herring, fresh		xx		Nil
Canned	98-210			
Hominy	0			
Honey	0			
Honey dew melon	50			
Ice cream, plain	540			
Kale	7500-20,000	Nil	8	xxx
Kidney, beef, cooked	1150			
Kippers		xx		Nil
Kohlrabi	2500			
Lamb, lean	0-Trace			
Lambsquarters	19,000			
Lard	0-5	0	0	
Leeks	1000		1.9	
Lemons	0			
Lentils, dry, cooked	50			
Lettuce, headed	540			
all others, aver.	1620			
green	4000-5000			
bleached	100		0.6	
Romaine or cos	1000			
Limes	0			
Liver, fresh	19,200-30,000	15-45		x
Mackerel, canned	175-215	xx	165-250	Nil
Mango	1000-1500			
Margarine, with added A	3300	x	x	
Marmalade, orange	5			
Marrow, vegetable	30			
Milk, breast		3		
After use of vitamin D milk		6		
Milk, cow's:				
Whole, fresh, aver. market	120	2	Trace	
From cows on dry feed	60	1		
From cows on pasture	180	3		
Canned, evaporated	400	3		
Irradiated		28+		
Fortified, pasteurized		40+		
Irradiated, pasteurized		14+		
Metabolized (yeast), certified		40+		
Dried, average	960	16		
From cows on dry feed	480	8		
From cows on pasture	1440	24		
Skim	10			
Dried	20			
Molasses	0			
Multi-Purpose Food	1667	133		
Mushrooms	0			
Grown in dark		21		
Grown in light		63		
Muskmelons	2400			
Mustard greens	6400-11,000	Nil	xx	xx

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

(Estimated per 100 grams moist weight.)*

Food items.	Vitamin A (I.U.)	Vitamin D (I.U.)	Vitamin E (mg.)	Vitamin K
	2800			
	200			
	0		2	
	400-2400			
	20	Nil	3.8	
	0			
en	200			
	125			
en	5000		0.2	
	0-50			
ated	20			
	190			
	100			
	140-210	5		
	2500-3000			
	5000-30,000	Nil	5.5	x
	0			
cooked	5-100			
white	880-2000			
	3000-3250			
	450			
	0	Nil	xxx	
	0		26-36	
roasted	10-30			
	Trace			
, dehydrated	220			
sh, cooked	680		6	x
green	530			
split	370			
	50-400			
	3000			
green	2000			
	2600			
ous	190			
cucumber	150			
le	125			
	100			
ed	350			
	500			
	0			
chips	80			
	20-40		0.1	
s	1500			
fresh	1600-2500			
	230			
ed	1200-3400			
in, cooked	3400			
ed	30			
	0			
	0			
berries, black	130			
	xxx		110	
alm oil	100			
rb	0		0.4	
white	2000			
	0			
agas, white	25			
ow	0		2.2-3.5	
	60	500		
n, Canned	30	225		
um	750	275		
nook	100	625		
k	325	800		
ies, canned in oil, drained	290	250-333		
ds				

(Estimated per 100 grams moist weight.)*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Vitamin A (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin D (I.U.)</i>	<i>Vitamin E (mg.)</i>	<i>Vitamin K</i>
Sardines, canned in oil, total contents	710	333		
Sauerkraut, canned	Trace			
Scallops	0			
Shrimp, canned	60	xx		
Soya oil			92-120	xx
Soybean sprouts	170			
Spinach	8400-25,000	Nil	1-7	xxx
Canned	6790			
Squash, summer	250-1000			
Winter	4000-6000			
Strawberries	60			
Succotash	400			
Suet, beef	600			
Sugar	0			
Sweet potatoes	3500-7700			
Dehydrated	21,900			
Swordfish, fresh	1595			
Tangerines	300-420			
Tomato, mature, green	800			xx
ripe	1000			x
Ketchup	270-1880			
Pureé	1880			
Tuna fish, canned, drained solids	70	<100-333		
Tuna fish, canned, total contents	130	<100-333		
Turnip greens	10,000-20,000	Nil	xx	xx
Turnips, white	0		0-02	
Yellow	20			
Walnuts, black	70			
English	50			
Watercress	4000			
Watermelon	50			
Wheat	0			
Wheat germ	0			
Wheat germ oil, crude			150-420	
medicinal			320	
Yeast	0			

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

TABLE 78.—Representative Values for the Chief Water-Soluble Vitamins in Some Foods.

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Thiamine Micrograms</i>	<i>Riboflavin</i>	<i>Nicotinic Acid Milligrams</i>	<i>Ascorbic Acid</i>
Almonds	255	300-670	5	0
Apples	45	10-50	0	1.5-20 (av. 5)
Apple juice	20	30	0	3
Pie	27	32	0	4
Applesauce, canned	10	10	0	1
Apple nuggets, dry	50	80	Trace	11
Apricots, fresh	30-45	40-75	<1	4-11
Canned	20	24	Trace	4
Dried, sulfured	10	160	3	12
Unsulfured	90	100		2
Arrowroot		60		
Artichokes, globe	75-180	30		10
Jerusalem	60-150			6

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

WATER-SOLUBLE VITAMINS IN SOME FOODS 817

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

Food items.	Thiamine Micrograms	Riboflavin	Nicotinic Acid Milligrams	Ascorbic Acid
green	180-210	120	1	35
d	60	90	1	15
	150-180	x		32
d		60		
	90-120	90-150	1	10-16
a	270	150	2	0
fat	420	100	2	0
	260	100	1.5	0
houts	54	x	0	6
owder		300		2.5
	50-90	60-75	<1	10
	500	120		
	120	80	3	0
ap:				
	80	100	<1	19-25
ed	30	50	Trace	4
	75	100		25
elled, green:				
	210	95	<1	28
	250-300	140-175	1	32
ned	30	50	<1	8
	470	300	1	30-40
ried:				
y, navy	450-600	240-325	2	0
	525	750		0
	1140-1200	310-750	2	0
	100	120	1	14
rouots	120	100	1	0
oaked	50	50	<1	
aned		54		
ew England style		24		4
With tomato sauce		220	2.4	1
up, dehydrated	460			
esh:	120	150	5.0	0
k	100	130	4.3	0
urger	100	130	4.6	0
steaks	110	140	4.7	0
oast, steaks	120	150	5.2	0
d steak	100	120	4.2	0
p	130	160	5.5	0
meat	100	120	4.3	0
meat	220	270	5.0	0
gue, med. fat				
rocessed:	50	100	1.7	0
ed, med. fat	20	190	2.7	0
anned	20	130	2.4	0
ash, canned ¹	40	110	2.5	6
ash, canned ²	110	220	3.7	0
ed, chipped	20	240	4.5	0
st, canned	90	190	2.7	
f and gravy	10	100	2.1	0
li con carne, plain, canned	40	120	2.4	0
x, canned ³	50	170-300	0.3	34-50
ops	10	30	0.1	5
canned	30-45	60		10
berries	30	140		150
currants				
eyed peas—see Cowpeas	30-45	70	0.3	10-15
erries	x	200		0
ash	310	300	3.0	0
tha				

ont. 72% beef, 28% potatoes.

ont. 50% meat, 48% potatoes, 2% onions.

ont. 50% meat, 15% potatoes, 15% carrots, 8% dry beans, 12% tomato puree.

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight)*

Food items.	Thiamine Micrograms	Riboflavin	Nicotinic Acid Milligrams	Ascorbic Acid Milligrams
Bouillon cubes	30	83	0.6 ⁴ up to 27 ⁵	
Brazil nuts	500-1100	70		
Bread:				
Rye, light	160	40	1.1	
White	45-90	50-90	1	
Enriched	240-400	150-350	2-3	
Whole wheat	225-450 (av. 280)	140-180 (av. 150)	3.5	
Broccoli, entire plant	130	250	0.9	70-110
Cooked				22
Flowers	135	240		24
Leaves	135	450		125
Stems	75			
Brussels sprouts	110-180	60-75	0.3	65-150
Buckwheat	450		4	8
Butter	0-120	10-37	0.1	6
Buttermilk, cultured	40	180	0.1	1
Butternuts	xx			6
Cabbage:				
Young, partly green	30	50		6
Mature, bleached	30	25	0.5	30
Red				60
Green, boiled 10 min.				40
" 15 "				29
" 30 "				22
" 60 "				15
" 90 "				5
" 120 "				1.5
Dehydrated ⁶	410	370	2.4	189
Cake, light batter	30-55	100-150	0.7	0
Candy, average	80	140	4	0
Cantaloupe	50-60	40-75	0.8	30-42
Carp		40		
Carrot juice				4
Carrots	60-70	60	0.5	6-10
Canned	30	20	0.3	2
Dehydrated	290	280	3.2	11
Cashew nuts	150	190		0
Cauliflower	100-150	105-130	0.6	69-75
Cooked	90			30
Celery	30	40	0.3	5.7
Bleached		35		
Green		100		
Celery cabbage	30	45		45
Cereals, prepared—refer to package label.				
Chard	60	130	0.2	38
Cheese:				
Amer., processed, canned	30	430	0.1	0
Camembert		830	1.6	
Chantelle		470	Trace	
Cheddar	24-40	500-550	0.2	0
Cottage	20	290	0.1	0
Cream	10	140	0.1	0
Parmisello		710	0.1	0
Processed (Old English)		570	Trace	0
Roquefort	30	450	1.2	0
Swiss	30	370	Trace	0
Velveta		550	0.1	0

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

⁴ vegetable extract.

⁵ meat extracts.

⁶ If sulfited, thiamine value appreciably lowered, ascorbic acid about doubled.

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

Food items.	Thiamin	Riboflavin	Nicotinic	Ascorbic
	Micrograms		Acid	Acid
			Milligrams	
	50	40		10
	30	20	0.2	3
fresh	240-270	x	1	6
	90-150	70-260	8.6	4
	(av. 110)	(av. 180)		
canned	10	150	3.7	2
	350	150	1.4	2
carne, plain, canned	10	100	2.1	0
	120			70
				0
milk	50	290		
ed	14			
tened	42	240	1.1	
	20	120	1	30
akfast type	67	390	2	0
at	75	390	2	0
ge, made with milk	75	230		0.9
, fresh	30-60	100	<1	0
	Trace	Trace	Trace	2
	40-90	50	2.3	
	xxx	xxx		
	270			
oil	0	0	0	0
	900	70	10	0
			<1	
age	80-220	200-300	0.8	60-100
	40	40	0.5	0
plain	150	60-140	1.4	12
weet, white or yellow	20	50	0.8	5
d	300	x		0
seals—refer to package label.				
al, white, degerminated	160	90	0.9	0
e-grain	410	120	1.7	0
al, yellow, degerminated	150	60	0.9	0
e-grain	450	170	2.1	0
rch	0	0	0	0
rup	0	10	0.1	0
eed oil	0	0	0	6
s, fresh				2
	500-830	230-300	2.2	13
eat	90-140	350	3	0
r meal	70	0	0.6	0
rs, Graham	300	120	1.5	0
	100	30	<1	15
	30	x		33
erries	190	180	0.9	
d		40		1
erry sauce, canned	30	140	0.1	0
, 20%	30	80	0.2	7
pie	10	20	Trace	8
ber pickles	30-40	25-90	0.2	150
bers	30	140		45
ts, black	45			35-100
lion greens	190	140	0.8	Trace
cured	75	45-100	2	0
nuts	280	220	2	8
	360	230	3	
		60		
en's:				0
ole, fresh	120-150	340	0.1	0
ried	350	1230	0.2	0
ite	0-Trace	.250		0
lk, fresh	320	520		5-10
lant	45-70	30-60	0.8	10
berries				

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight).*

Food items.	Thiamine Micrograms	Riboflavin Micrograms	Nicotinic Acid	Ascorbic Acid
			Milligrams	
Endive, escarole	50-84	120-200		
French	75	60		
Farina	60	60	1	
Enriched	370-530	260-270	1.3	
Fig bars	20	60	0.9	
Figs, fresh	60-75	5-45	<1	
Dried	66	75	2	
Fish, aver. lean	90-180			
Med. fat	70	70	4.2	
Flour:				
Buckwheat, light	310	80	2.1	
Whole-grain	610	160	4.2	
Rye, light	150	70	0.9	
Whole-grain	470	210	1.7	
Soy, low fat	1100	350	2.9	
Med. fat	820	340	2.6	
Full fat	770	280	2.2	
Wheat, patent	70	30	0.8	
Enriched, min.	440	260	3.5	
Enriched, max.	550	330	4.4	
Wheat, peeled	580			
Self-rising	20	20	0.7	
Enriched	440	260	3.5	
Stone-ground	480			
Stone-ground, white	270-330			
Whole	560	120	5.6	
Frankfurters	190	230	2.4	
Fruit cocktail, canned	10	10	0.4	
Garden cress	90			
Garlic	150	4		14
Goose	150	xx	3	xx
Gooseberries	150			25
Grapefruit	40-72	20-40	0.2	43
Juice	50-75	30		41-45
Canned	30	19	0.2	35
Segments, canned	30	21	0.2	30
Grapes	45-50	15-40	0.4	4
Juice	30	30	0	2.6
Dried, unsulfured	150	80	0.5	Trace
Guavas	45-150	10-90	1	75-250
Haddock	15-120	160	1	0
Halibut	90-120	180	6	0
Ham, fresh	960	190	4.1	0
Smoked	780	190	3.8	0
Ham and eggs, canned ⁷	160	240	1.7	0
Hash—see Beef, corned				
Hazelnuts (filberts)	400-660	xx		0
Heart, fresh:				
Beef	600	900	6.8	14
Lamb	600			
Pork	540		8	
Herring	120	310	4	0
Hickory nuts	600	xx		0
Hominy, white	150-180	50-60	0.9	0
Honey	0-6	0-40	0.2	0.4
Horseradish	70			90
Huckleberries				40
Ice cream, plain	24-40	150-190	0.1	Trace
Jams	20	20	0.2	6
Jellies	20	20	0.2	4
Kale	120-190	350-500	0.8	100-150
Ketchup, tomato	120	70	2	43

⁷ 50% each.

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

Food items.	Thiamine	Riboflavin	Nicotinic	Ascorbic
	Micrograms		Acid Milligrams	Acid
veal	250 300 500	2100 2000 2100	10	11
t	210	260	5.9	0
roast	180	230	5.2	0
hops	210	260	5.9	0
rters	x	x		85
	0	0	0	0
	80-150	x		15-20
	8			5
	40-60	5	0.1	45
	30	Trace		45
	500	315-400	3	0
dried	60-75	45-70	0.2	8
headed	60-75	70-150	0.2	18
er	30-60	5	0.1	27-37
	270-400	2500-3300	16.1	31
esh	170	1120	4.6	0
ge	150	130		5
	33			35
berries				2
			2.7	9
n meat, canned	290	210	2.1	0
ai	130	80	5.8	0
el, Atlantic	58	200	8.7	
c	26	330		
	xxx	xxx		25-60
	60-90	50-100		0
	0	0-6	0	7
ine	20	20	0	11
lade, orange	30-60			0
f, vegetable	40	40	0	21
haise	46		0.8	33-42
, honey dew	60	40-75		
aloupe				
ow's:	42	195	0.1	Raw 2.2 Past. 1.3
le, fresh, aver. market				
	42	160		
rom cows on dry feed	42	210		1
rom cows on pasture	50	390	0.2	1
le, condensed	50	360	0.2	6
vaporated	300	1500	0.7	1
dried	45	200	0.1	7
n, fresh	350	1960	1.1	
dried				1
miscellaneous:	40	180	0.1	<1
termilk, cultured	30-40	160-180	0.1	1.5
ocolate flavored	60	40-80		6
at	15-20	16-52	0.2	0
man	0-80	0-160	2.8-4	
ses	400	670	4	
-Purpose Food	60-120	5-500	6	1-8
rooms	90-140	200-370	0.8	100-180
ard greens	72			25
arries	180	110	2.1	0
lles, egg	540-810	100-150	1.1	0
veal	120	100	0.7	20-30
	8	x	0	0
- green	6	0		20-30
pe				9-15
is, green	30	20-60	0.1	37
ature	230	150	1.1	49
hydrated	80	30-60	0.2	
ges				

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

Food items.	Thiamine Micrograms	Riboflavin	Nicotinic Acid Milligrams	Ascorbic Acid Milligrams
Orange Juice	70	15		45
Canned	70	20	0.2	32
Oysters, solids and liquor	180-300	230-460	1.2	Trace
Papaya	50-75	150-180		45
Parsley	80	300		10-14
Parsnips	80-120	90	0.2	18-22
Peaches	20-40	50-60	0.9	8-25
Canned	10	20	0.7	4
Dried, sulfited	10	200	5.4	24
Peanut butter	200-300	160-320	16.2	6
Peanuts, roasted	300-400 ⁸	160-500	16.2	6
Pears	20-45	20-75	0.1	4.7
Canned	10	20	0.1	2
Pea soup, dehydrated	620	210	3.1	2
Peas, green	400	200	2.1	25
Canned	110	60	0.9	8
Split	870	290	3.0	2
Pecans	500	300	0.9	2
Peppers, green	30-70	40-100	0.4	120-180
Red	30-70			150
Persimmons	0			100
Pickles, cucumber	10	20	Trace	7
Pineapple	80-90	5-55	0.2	24-38
Canned	70	20	0.2	9
Juice, fresh	65			25
Canned	50			9-15
Plums	50-150	30-45	0.6	5.7
Canned (Italian prunes)	30	30	0.4	1
Pomegranate juice		100		7
Popcorn, popped	x	x	1	0
Pork:				
Bacon—see separate entry.				
Boston butt	1050	210	4.5	0
Ham—see separate entry.				
Lean cuts, misc.	920	180	3.9	
Loin	1040	200	4.4	
Picnic	940	180	4.0	
Pork and gravy, canned	190	240	2.7	
Sausage	220	150	2.3	
Bulk, canned	190	210	2.8	
Salt, fat	180	40	0.9	
Spareribs	920	180	3.9	
Potato chips	350	210		15
Potatoes, aver.	100	40	1.2	10
New				16
Stored, old				5
Newly dehydrated	250	100	4.8	26
Prunes, fresh	50			
Dried, unsulfited	100-180	160	1.7	Trace
Pumpkin	50	80	<1	3-10
Canned	20	60	0.5	0
Quince				9-12
Rabbit	90	60	7	4
Radishes	40-60	30-40	0.1	25
Raisins, unsulfited	150	80	0.5	Trace
Raspberries	20-30	70	0.3	30
Juice	20			20
Rhubarb	10-25	30	0.1	15-20
Cooked				8
Rice, brown	290	50	4.6	0
Converted	230	40	3.8	
White	50	30	1.4	

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

⁸ Tested without skins, with skins higher.

WATER-SOLUBLE VITAMINS IN SOME FOODS 823

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

Food items.	Thiamine Micrograms	Riboflavin	Nicotinic Acid Milligrams	Ascorbic Acid
in, enriched	1000	100		5
et, not enriched	240	150	2	0
	80	130	0.8	
	60-75	60-100	0.5	36-45
	500	140		
	30-120	160-220	7.4	9
	30	160-180	6.5	0
Atlantic, canned in oil,				7
l solids	15	190	4.8	0
Pacific, canned in oil,				
d solids	7	300	7.4	
, Pacific, in tomato juice	10	330	5.8	
aut, canned	30	200	0.2	8-18
	xx	x	1	3
Wheat	200	140	4.2	0
	90	160	1	3
d	10	30	1.9	0
e Beans and Flour.				
ti with meat, canned	20	120	2.2	
ti	130	80	2.1	0
	50-120	240-300	0.7	59-75
ed	20	80	0.3	14
, summer	40	50	1.1	17
er	50	80	0.6	8
erries	30	70	0.3	60
ash	90	100		8
	0	0	0	0
potatoes	100-140	60-75	0.7	22-33
hydrated	180	140	1.9	34
fish	53	49	9.1	
table	0	10	0.1	0
prines	70-120	20-30	0.2	30-48
	90	xx		10
	0	350	7	0
verage			< 1	
o catsup	90	70	2.2	11
ee	90	70	1.8	28
oes, fresh	60-80	40-60	0.6	23
en (mature)	70	45		13-30
e	75	60		13-30
ned and juice	50-80	40-45	0.7	7-29
e, fresh, med. fat	220	270	5	0
	6	120	3	
fish, canned, drained solids	40	130	10.6	0
fish, canned, total contents	40	110	9.2	0
v	120-150	190-240	7.9	
o greens	100	350-560	0.8	100-140
os	60	60	0.5	30
ked				18
ps, loin	180	270	6.3	0
et, round	180	280	6.4	
st or steak, leg	170	270	6.3	
y meat	170	260	6.0	
a sausage, canned	70	140	3.1	0
ts, black	330			
lish	480	130	1.2	3
ross	120	250	1	60-75
melon	30-60	15-50	0.2	6
see also Flour.				
le-grain, uncooked	450	130	4.6	0
	370-520	350-600	32	0
	2050-3500	480-1500	4.6-7	0
		(av. 800)		

(Estimated per 100 grams or 100 cc. of moist weight.)*

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Thiamine Micrograms</i>	<i>Riboflavin</i>	<i>Nicotinic Acid Milligrams</i>	<i>Ascorbic Acid Milligrams</i>
Whey, dried	1100	5900		
Whitefish	90	xx		
Yeast, compressed baker's	450	2070	28.2	
Dried, brewer's	9690	5450	36.2	

* Excellent xxx, Good xx, Fair x.

TABLE 79.—Occurrence of Minor Members of the Vitamin B Complex in Some Foods.

(Estimated in micrograms per 100 grams of moist weight.)

<i>Food items.</i>	<i>Pyridoxine</i>	<i>Pantothenic Acid</i>	<i>Biotin</i>
Apples	26	60	0.9
Apricots, canned		90	
Artichokes, Jerusalem		400	
Asparagus, canned:			
All green		165	
Bleached		105	
Bananas	320	70-180	4.4
Barley		1000	
Beans, green, canned		55	
Lima, green, canned		95	
Navy, canned:			
New England style		70	
With tomato sauce		85	
Dried	550	830	9.8
Beef brain		1800	
Heart	120	2000	
Liver	170	4000-7600	
Muscle	77	490	2.6
Beef, lean		1000	
Beets	110	110	2.7
Canned		66	
Bread, white		460	1.1
Whole wheat		570	1.9
Broccoli		1100-1400	
Buttermilk, churned		350-560 (av. 460)	
Cabbage	120	180	2.4
Carrots	120	200-250	2.5
Canned		115	
Cauliflower	20	920	17.0
Cheese	66	130-960	3.6
Chicken		530-620	5.4-9.8
Breast	130		
Leg	25		
Chocolate	23	190	32.0
Corn		310	5.8
Yellow, whole kernel, canned		180	
White, whole kernel, canned		160	
Cornmeal, white	54		
Cowpeas		1700-2000 (av. 1800)	
Egg, hen's	22	800-4800 (av. 2700)	9.0
Egg-yolk		5000-10,000 (av. 6300)	
Grapefruit	9	290	3.7
Canned, juice		100	
Segments		110	
Halibut	110	150	8.0
Lamb, leg	81	600	2.1

(Estimated in micrograms per 100 grams of moist weight.)

Food items.	Pyridoxine	Pantothenic	Biotin
		Acid	
		110	3.1
		300	
canned:			
	210	310	3.0
	270	470	18.0
whole	6	130-420	5.0
		(av. 200)	
		210-430	
		(av. 360)	
	50		
	270	260	9.1
ns	45	1700	16.0
shoulder	18	4300	2.7
ed		1100	
	80	70-340	1.9
canned		100	
	33	490	8.7
canned:			
one		35	
one		45	
nned		19	
sh	79-190	380-1040	3.5
d		120	
	300	2100	18.0
roasted	300	2500	34.0
le. canned		85	
ascle		470-1100	2-4.6
	29-100	280-980	7.5
	19-170	340-660	4-6
	86-270		
	220-320	320-650	0.6
		60	
n, canned		38	
n, canned		400	
	94	90	3.1
olished		400	
		1500-2700	
		(av. 2200)	
canned	450	580-700	15.0
s, canned:			
ic	160	470	4.0
e	280	600	24.0
tomato sauce	220	450	27.0
dry pack		255	
pack		185	
is		1800	
	83	120-180	6.9
ed		45	
berries	44	260	4.0
et		700	
es	60	100	4.0
ed		200-370	
		(av. 220)	
canned in oil	440	420	3.0
	110	37	2.1
	56-130	110-260	1.4-2
		800	
s, English		510-1100	5.2-7
whole		2000-3000	
		(av. 2400)	
	600-1750	700-850	
e flour		300	0.7
dried	3600	20,000	
		140-350	
		(av. 300)	

TABLE 80. Vitamin Content of Strained and Chopped Foods Prepared for Infant Feeding.

Food items.	Vitamin				Ascorbic acid (mg.)
	A	Thiamine	Riboflavin	Niacin	
	(I.U.)	(γ)	(γ)	(mg.)	
Value per 100 grams or 100 cc.					
<i>Beech-Nut:</i>					
JUNIOR FOODS:					
Beans, green	320	32	81	0.7	7.7
Beets	10	8	28	0.3	1.3
Carrots	5300	20	29	0.5	1.7
Chicken soup	640	35	38	0.5	0.8
Liver soup	1660	26	440	1.5	4.7
Pineapple rice pudding	118	32	57	0.3	1.8
Prunes	410	25	19	1.2	1.8
Raisin rice pudding	114	23	106	0.8	2.6
Spinach	3370	20	157	0.6	12.1
Vegetable and beef	900				
Vegetable and lamb	1750	12	85	0.4	1.4
Vegetable soup	1380	20	20	0.5	0.8
Vegetables with bacon	1033	35	40	0.8	0.8
STRAINED FOODS:					
Apple and apricot	400	19	13	1.1	0.4
Apple sauce	63	17	7	0.5	0.9
Beans, green	290	22	99	0.8	2.5
Beets	4	9	50	0.3	4.9
Carrots	10280	18	16	0.6	2.7
Chicken soup	500	42	50	0.6	0
Custard pudding	198	12	129	0.2	0.5
Liver soup	2240	22	430	1.2	3.5
Peaches	350	15	12	0.6	3.3
Pears	43	11	15	0.3	0.5
Peas	280	73	76	1.1	9.2
Pineapple pudding	88	30	55	0.6	0.3
Prunes	520	19	51	0.4	1.8
Spinach	2860	10	108	0.6	9.9
Squash	2540	18	63	0.2	2.9
Tomatoes with milk	1520	32	200	0.4	2.8
Vegetable and beef	1960	15	30	1.0	0.9
Vegetable and lamb	1340	12	90	1.5	1.4
Vegetable soup	2480	30	21	0.6	0.7
Vegetables with bacon	1220	47	56	0.7	0.4
<i>Campbell:</i>					
STRAINED SOUPS					
Beef	1693	37	72	1.3	3.9
Chicken	1766	18	40	0.8	1.1
Lamb	1130	36	68	1.2	2.7
Liver	7000	80	62	1.5	7.3
Vegetable	2550	69	64	1.0	7.5
<i>Clapp:</i>					
Baby cereal		1000	300		
Baby oatmeal		1000	300		
JUNIOR FOODS					
Apple sauce	116	10	12	Trace	1.1
Apricots with farina	1633	29	20	0.3	1.1
Carrots	7866	27	13	0.4	2.2
Chicken soup	1350	40	28	0.5	1.1
Chocolate pudding	116	9	239	0.2	1.5
Fish chowder		45	54		
Peaches	366	16	14	1.0	1.0
Pears	167	2	32	Trace	1.1
Pineapple pudding	150	24	239	0.2	1.2
Prunes	466	24	25	0.8	4.7
Spinach	4400	41	93	0.2	6.3
Vegetable soup	6200	26	27	0.4	1.3

Food items.	Vitamin	Thiamine	Riboflavin	Niacin	Ascorbic
	A	(γ)	(γ)	(mg.)	Acid
	(I.U.)				(mg.)
Value per 100 grams or 100 cc.					
(cont.)					
FOODS (cont.)					
ables, creamed	2833	26	99	0.4	1.4
ables with bacon	7016	67	10	0.7	1.5
ables with beef	4366	18	48	0.7	1.7
ables with lamb	3416	39	34	0.7	2.0
ables with liver	4233	55	487	1.5	1.4
ED FOODS					
e sauce	116	9	10	Trace	1.1
cots and apples					
th farina		6			
as, green	533	28	57	0.3	3.6
rots	8600	24	12	0.5	2.3
eken soup	1433	16	133	0.2	0.5
tard pudding	333	12	46	0.1	1.1
er soup	2833	43	470	1.6	1.7
ches	200	51	25	0.3	1.7
ts	167	1	29	Trace	1.4
s	600	89	69	1.1	9.1
eanple pudding	133	24	130	0.1	2.1
ues	450	163	29	0.7	3.2
ash	1083	35	75	0.5	5.6
getable soup	1333	25	71	0.4	2.0
getables, creamed	1033	23	128	0.4	1.5
getables, mixed	966	13	26	0.4	1.2
getables with bacon	5600	77	9	0.7	1.8
getables with beef	2000	16	86	0.5	0.3
getables with lamb	2966	30	43	0.6	2.0
OOKED CEREALS, DRY					
arley cereal		2000	500	8.4	
ereal food		1800	300	6.7	
trained oatmeal		2000	300	4.3	
PPED FOODS					
ople prune pudding	360	25	77	0.1	1.8
ans, green	640	42	77		5.6
arrots	15190	25	32	0.6	2.8
eats:					
Beef		15	217	7.1	
Liver		74	3440	14.7	
Veal		29	301	8.6	
aches	1575	7	25	0.8	2.5
neapple rice pudding	35	21	60	0.2	3.2
inach	4080	28	98	0.2	7.0
getable and beef	3000	32	46	0.5	1.4
getable and lamb	3510	35	46	0.4	2.5
getable and liver	2140	39	280	1.1	3.2
INED FOODS					
ople sauce	93	14	35	0.1	1
ricots with farina	4070	21	25	0.3	2.5
ans, green	605	32	74	0.5	5.6
ets	18	14	35	0.1	7.5
arrots	11620	25	42	0.6	3.5
ocolate custard	74	32	154	0.2	1
stard pudding	64	35	158	0.2	1
er soup	2680	60	469	2.0	5.2
eats:					
Beef		12	193	3.4	
Liver		65	2270	8.3	
Veal		38	311	6.1	
xed vegetables	5290	224	84	0.5	1.8
ches	950	18	39	0.5	2.5

Food items.	Vitamin				Value per 100 grams or 100 cc.
	A	Thiamine	Riboflavin	Niacin	
	(I.U.)	(γ)	(γ)	(mg.)	
<i>Gerber:</i>					
STRAINED FOODS (cont.)					
Pears	64	14	32	0.3	
Pear pineapple	64	25	21		
Peas	565	98	66	0.9	
Prunes	815	28	60	0.5	
Spinach	3045	28	112	0.3	
Squash	1720	25	66	2.5	
Vegetable and lamb	2465	32	42	0.7	
Vegetable soup	2805	49	96	0.3	
<i>Heinz:</i>					
PRECOOKED CEREALS, DRY					
Cereal food		1200	880	22.8	
Oatmeal		1230	880	22.8	
JUNIOR FOODS					
Apple, fig and date dessert	22	18	43		2.5
Chicken farina vegetable porridge	370	110	110	1.2	1.7
Chopped carrots	4000	36	58	Trace	3.3
Chopped green beans	650	38	81		8.8
Chopped mixed vegetables	2000	27	55		1.8
Chopped spinach	4500	33	200		7.8
Creamed diced vegetables	2500	21	140	1.3	3.1
Creamed tomato and rice	1500	60	98		10.0
Pineapple rice pudding	38	27	70		0.8
Prune pudding	300	30	180		3.2
Vegetables with lamb and liver	2600	27	180	1.5	3.2
STRAINED FOODS					
Apple prune pudding	130	19	71		1.4
Apple sauce	32	Trace	14		2.5
Apricots and apple sauce	4100	21	45		2.0
Apricots with oatmeal	3100	39	17		3.5
Beans, green	1200	33	78	Trace	8.0
Beef and liver soup	5700	39	220	1.8	8.0
Beef broth with beef and barley	74	28	32	1.5	1.7
Beets	14	15	28	Trace	10.0
Carrots	6800	24	53		2.6
Custard pudding	55	16	100		2.0
Orange pudding	55	25	71		3.9
Peaches	740	12	Trace		2.7
Pears and pineapple	48	36	43		1.5
Pears with farina		16	13		0.7
Peas	1100	120	120	1.7	14.0
Prunes	800	42	140		9.0
Spinach	5400	27	170	Trace	8.8
Tomato juice	630	40	20	0.9	20.0
Tomato soup	2300	78	130	1.1	22.0
Vegetable and lamb	2700	17	30		0.7
Vegetable soup	1300	218	110		1.4
<i>Libby:</i>					
HOMOGENIZED FOODS					
Apples and apricots	1470	11	13	0.2	4.7
Apples and prunes	250	Trace	100	0.1	4.9
Apple sauce	62	10	13	0.1	4.6
Apricot-farina	2634	13	22	0.3	2.1
Beans, green	333	28	40	0.2	7.2
Beets	9	16	22	0.1	Nil
Carrots	7320	22	23	0.4	8.2
Custard pudding	425	Trace	141	<0.1	Nil
Fruits, mixed (apricots, peaches, pears)	933	11	13	0.5	2.6
Liver soup	5480	41	328	2.0	2.4

Food items.	Vitamin				
	A	Thiamine	Riboflavin	Niacin	Ascorbic
	(I.U.)	(γ)	(γ)	(mg.)	Acid (mg.)
Value per 100 grams or 100 cc.					
CANIZED FOODS (cont.)					
Apples	668	10	18	0.9	3.6
Apples and pineapple	5	31	17	0.2	1.4
Apples	417	73	43	0.9	3.6
Apples with pineapple and					
orange juices	775	19	103	0.6	8.9
Apples	3570	11	65	0.2	17.0
Apples	1562	13	42	0.4	4.9
Apple soup	2670	72	43	0.8	2.6
Apples, garden (carrots,					
beans, spinach)	5340	46	32	0.5	1.8
Apples, mixed (green					
beans, pumpkin, tomato)	1200	20	26	0.2	5.1
Apples with bacon	4301	38	22	0.6	2.4
Apples with beef	4400	77	43	1.3	2.4
Apples with lamb	1085	26	82	0.6	1.1
MEATS					
Beef		17	326	4.7	
Beef		156	1067	4.4	
Beef		42	287	5.3	
Beef		30	2200	7.1	
Beef		452	238	3.7	
Beef		52	350	6.3	
CANIZED MEATS					
Beef		10	242	3.2	
Beef		64	181	4.5	
Beef		26	264	4.0	
Beef		14	2000	4.4	
Beef		346	278	4.7	
Beef		24	288	4.9	

SUGGESTIONS FOR SAVING VITAMINS.

See P. Daniel in "Vitamin Content of Foods" in the Yearbook of the U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, issued in 1940, No. 1681. It recommends the following practical suggestions for the preservation of vitamin values in cooking and serving foods:

- Don't stir air into foods while cooking.
- Don't put them through a sieve while still hot.
- Don't use soda in cooking green vegetables.
- In boiling foods, raise the temperature to the boiling point as rapidly as possible.
- Use as little water as possible.
- Don't use long cooking processes such as stewing when shorter methods are feasible.
- Don't throw away the water in which vegetables have been cooked.
- Use it in making gravies, sauces, and soups.
- Don't fry foods valuable for their content of vitamins A, B₁, or C.
- Prepare chopped fruit and vegetable salads just before serving.
- Start cooking frozen foods while they are still frozen.
- Serve raw frozen foods immediately after thawing."

Additional suggestions are given by Munsell (1940):

- Do not peel vegetables or fruits and cut them up and then let them stand before cooking. Cook them whole and with the outer covering on helps preserve vitamin content.
- Serve foods as soon as possible after they are cooked.
- Frying and roasting are very destructive of vitamins.
- Store foods at low temperatures and in closed containers."

TABLE 81.—Ascorbic Acid Content of Cooked and Canned Foods Compared with the Fresh Foods.*

Food items.	Raw.	Cooked.		Method of preparation.
		Solid.	Liquid.	
		Mg. per 100 g. or cc.		
Apples	10.0	7.0	...	Sauce, 12 min. 100° C.
	10.0	6.0	...	Sauce, 12 min. 100° C.
	10.0	3.1-3.3	...	Baked, open, 1 1/2 hrs., 204° C.
	10.0	2.6-3.4	...	Baked, covered, 1 1/2 hrs., 204° C.
	10.0	2.2	...	Baked in pie
Asparagus	12.0	8.2	...	Boiled
		0	...	Canned
		2.8	...	Canned, strained
Tips	45.0-165.4	21.4-35.7	1.1-2.2	Boiled
	45.0-165.4	10.0-14.4	10.6-17.1	Canned
White stems	8.0-25.6	10.1-17.1	1.1-2.2	Boiled
	8.0-25.6	10.3-13.7	10.6-17.1	Canned
Green stems	23.7-71.7	19.5-39.8	1.1-2.2	Boiled
	23.7-71.7	13.1-32.6	10.6-17.1	Canned
Beans, broad	27.7	7.8	8.9	Boiled
Beans, green stringless	9.0-13.5	1.8-3.4	2.5-6.2	Boiled
	9.0-13.5	4.1-4.2	5.5-5.6	Canned
Beets	21.8	20.1	...	Boiled 1 to 2 hours
				rejected
	21.8	20.1		Boiled 1 to 2 hours, kept
Beet greens		13.2-19.2	...	Canned
	43.0	25.0	4.0	Boiled 2 min.
	43.0	16.0	7.0	Boiled 6 min.
	43.0, 37.0	16.0, 16.0	9.0, 7.0	Boiled 10 min. done
	37.0	14.0	10.0	Boiled 14 min. covered
Broccoli	32.0	22.0	...	Boiled
Brussels sprouts	115.0	33.3-36.6	16.2-23.4	Boiled
	79.0	43.8	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min.
				rejected
	79.0	77.3		Boiled 30 to 40 min., kept
	123.0	66.0	...	Boiled 15 min.
	123.0	29.0	...	As above, then 2 hrs.
				cooking box
	123.0	24.0	...	As above, then 6 hrs.
				cooking box
	123.0	87.0	...	Steamed 15 min.
	123.0	29.0	...	As above, then 2 hrs.
				cooking box
	123.0	18.0	...	As above, then 6 hrs.
				cooking box
	123.0	64.0	...	Cooked in cooking box
				min.
	123.0	41.0	...	As above, then 2 hrs.
				2 hrs. in cooking box
	123.0	33.0	...	As above, then 6 hrs.
				6 hrs. in cooking box
	79.0	66.9	...	Cooked with small amount of water
Cabbage, <i>see also</i> page 818	15.0	12.0	...	Boiled
	22.0-30.0	11.0-16.0	0.9-1.2	Finely cut, brought to
	22.0-30.0	9.0-13.0	1.2-2.0	Finely cut, boiled 5 min.
		8.0-11.0	1.8-2.5	Finely cut, boiled 10 min.

* From Boas Fixsen, M. A.: Nutrition Abstracts and Reviews, 8, 299, 1938.

Raw.	Cooked.		Method of treatment.
	Solid.	Liquid.	
Mg. per 100 g. or cc.			
	7.0-9.0	2.2-3.1	Finely cut, boiled 9 min.
	7.0-8.0	2.5-3.8	Finely cut, boiled 12 min.
18.0	10.3	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid rejected
18.0		15.5	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid kept
18.0	0	...	Boiled 1 to 2 hrs., liquid rejected
18.0		14.9	Boiled 1 to 2 hrs., liquid kept
57.3	32.7	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid rejected
57.3		58.4	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid kept
57.3	40.9	...	Boiled 1 to 2 hrs., liquid rejected
57.3		55.9	Boiled 1 to 2 hrs., liquid kept
56.7	12.9	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid rejected
56.7		35.5	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid kept
56.7	9.6	...	Boiled 1 to 2 hrs., liquid rejected
56.7		24.3	Boiled 1 to 2 hrs., liquid kept
1.2	3.6	...	Cooked
4.8-8.0	4.3-9.5	1.4-5.6	Cooked
4.8-8.0	3.1-4.1	3.9-4.7	Canned
	0	...	Canned
	2.5	...	Canned, strained
23.8	6.5	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid rejected
23.8		26.6	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid kept
23.8	18.9	...	Cooked with minimum of water
l Anne	2.1	...	Canned
	7.6	...	Boiled 12 min. on cob
	9.0	...	Boiled 4 min., whole kernels
	8.9	...	Boiled
	8.2	...	Boiled
	9.0	...	Home canned, cream style
	9.0	...	Home canned, whole kernels
27.6-47.0		17.8-28.5	Cooked
27.6-47.0	11.4-23.5	13.9-21.0	Canned
...	...	45.0-50.0	Canned, sweetened, tested at once
		39.0-46.0	Canned, sweetened, tested after 6 months
		34.0-41.0	Canned, sweetened, tested after 12 months
		45.0-54.0	Canned, unsweetened, tested at once
		40.0-48.0	Canned, unsweetened, tested after 6 months
		36.0-43.0	Canned, unsweetened, tested after 12 months
ms	5.0-6.5	2.4-4.4	Cooked
	5.0-6.5	3.1-5.7	Canned
	155.0	36.0	Chopped, boiled 25 min.

Food items.	Cooked.			Method of preparation
	Raw.	Solid.	Liquid.	
		Mg. per 100 g. or cc.		
Kale (cont.)	155.0	20.0	...	As above, then 1 hr. cooking box
	155.0	14.0	...	As above, then 4 hr. cooking box
	155.0	51.0	...	Chopped, steamed
	155.0	16.0	...	As above, then 1 hr. cooking box
	155.0	11.0	...	As above, then 4 hr. cooking box
Kohlrabi . . .	37.6	8.9	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., rejected
	37.6	26.7	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., kept
	37.6	35.8	...	Cooked in minimum amount of water
Loganberries . .	38.8-48.4	22.1-24.2	25.8-26.7	Boiled
	38.8-48.4	31.0-46.9	26.7-35.2	Canned
Onions	8.9	3.1	...	Boiled
	9.7	5.6	2.3	Boiled
Orange juice . .	50.0	...	29.4	Canned
Orange marmalade, much peel	7.0-14.0	...	
Little peel	6.0, 6.5	...	
No peel	<1.0	...	
Parsnips	3.7	6.1	...	
Peas	14.0	8.1	...	
	17.4	13.7	...	Boiled
	23.0-24.0	11.0-15.0	...	Boiled
	22.7-31.2	6.7-10.0	5.2-7.4	Boiled
	22.7-31.2	8.1-19.9	11.0-17.8	Canned
Pineapple	5.9	5.4	...	Canned
Pineapple juice . .	31.0	...	7.0	Canned
Plums, red . . .	4.6	2.9	2.3	Boiled
	4.6	2.5	2.2	Canned
Potatoes, white .	8.9, 9.9, 13.3	8.6, 9.5, 12.8	...	Boiled, peeled
	12.6, 13.3	14.9, 12.8	...	Boiled, 35 min., 95° peeled
	12.6, 13.3	17.2, 14.1	...	Steamed 45 min., peeled
	5.8-9.5	4.1-5.9	...	Boiled, peeled
	5.8-9.5	4.4-6.7	...	Steamed, peeled
	5.8-9.5	4.8-7.9	...	Steamed, unpeeled
	13.0-27.0	14.0-16.0	...	Steamed 20 min., unpeeled
	13.0-27.0	10.0-14.0	...	Boiled 20 min., peeled
	13.0-27.0	7.0	...	As above, then 2 hr. cooking box
	13.0-27.0	1.0-2.0	...	As above, then 6 hr. cooking box
	12.6, 13.3	12.2, 11.5	...	Cooked in pressure cooker
	12.6, 13.3	22.0, 17.0	...	Greased and baked at 225° C.
	12.6, 13.3	6.8, 9.4	...	Cooked, then fried in butter in slices
	12.6, 13.3	13.4, 11.8	...	Fried in butter in slices
	13.3	13.7	...	Fried in Crisco in slices
Potatoes, new . .	29.1-40.6	18.5-25.0	1.8-4.9	Boiled
	29.1-40.6	19.3-21.9	11.5-25.0	Canned
Potatoes, sweet	8.0-12.0	...	Cooked in skins
Raspberries	5.0-8.0	3.9-8.1	Canned
Rhubarb	11.7	3.2	...	Cooked
	11.7	1.6	...	Canned
Sauerkraut . . .	8.8	2.3	...	Cooked in minimum amount of water
Spinach	18.0	13.0	...	Boiled

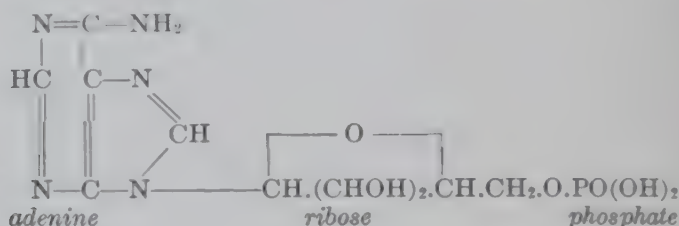
Raw.	Cooked.		Method of treatment.
	Solid.	Liquid.	
Mg. per 100 g. or cc.			
78.3	29.7	...	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid rejected
78.3		48.9	Boiled 30 to 40 min., liquid kept
32.0-46.9	12.1-23.7	12.1-21.4	Canned
3.1	4.1	...	Cooked
71.4	37.5	25.0	Boiled
71.4	35.7	20.8	Canned
64.6-77.5	40.8-55.4	16.3-18.4	Canned
17.0-22.0	14.0-21.0	...	Canned, tested after 24 hr.
17.0-22.0	7.0-18.0	...	Canned, tested after 6 months
	12.9-13.7	...	Strained
15.7	...	24.2	Canned
		5.4-23.0	Canned
35.0	18.0	...	Boiled

GLOSSARY OF VITAMIN TERMS.

Achromotrichia. Depigmentation of fur in rats, apparently due to lack of some member of the B-complex.

Adaptometer. An instrument for detecting early evidence of night blindness.

Adenylic Acid. Adenine ribose phosphate, $C_{17}H_{17}N_5O_8 \cdot HPO_3$, enters the composition of co-dehydrogenase I and II. Also called adenylic monophosphate.



Adermin. Early name for vitamin B₆; unsuitable since dermatologic lesions are still seen in the presence of this vitamin; György suggests (1940) that B₆ be called *pyridoxine*.

Almquist-Stokstad Unit. One of many units for vitamin K, approximately equal to one-half an Ansbacher unit.

Alpha. Terms with this prefix will be found under the name of the substance, as alpha-tocopherol under Tocopherol.

A. D. M. A. units. See following items.

American Drug Manufacturers' Association unit for vitamin A. Equivalent to Sherman-Munsell unit.

American Drug Manufacturers' Association unit for vitamin D. Equivalent to about one-third of the I.U. or U.S.P. unit.

Aneurin. European term for vitamin B₁; thiamine.

"Animal Protein Factor". Substance produced by bacterial fermentation in henhouse litter which, when consumed by hens on vegetarian fare, aids in hatching eggs.

Ansbacher Unit. One of the many units employed for vitamin K and roughly equal to 20 Dam units.

Antagonist. A substance chemically related to a vitamin which is capable of counteracting the biological activity of the vitamin in question.

Anti-acrodynia factor. Vitamin B₆, essential for growth and prevention of rat pellagra and dermatitis (György).

Anti-beri-beri vitamin. Vitamin B₁; thiamine.

Anti-hemorrhagic factor. Vitamin K.

Anti-hemorrhagic flavone glucosides. "Vitamin P".

Anti-infective Principle. Used without justification for vitamin A.

Anti-keratinizing vitamin. Vitamin A.

Anti-metabolite. A substance chemically related to naturally-occurring agents within the body and capable of interfering with their normal action.

Anti-neuritic vitamin. Vitamin B₁; thiamine.

Anti-oxidant. A substance capable of retarding chemical deterioration, as rancidity in fats. Examples include (1) a lecithin-tocopherol combination which protects vitamin A from oxidation in air (Kern, 1948); and (2) vitamin C when used to prevent darkening of commercial packs of frozen peaches and apricots.

"Anti-pernicious anemia principle". See LLD factor (Shorb, 1948).

Anti-rachitic factor. Vitamin D.

Anti-scorbutic factor. Vitamin C.

Anti-sterility vitamin. Vitamin E, although reproductive potency is only a part of E function.

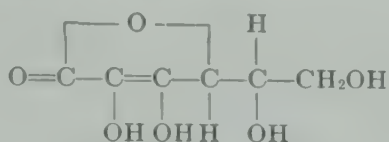
ness Factor. Agent first found in fresh kale and fresh raw cream prevents muscle and wrist changes in guinea pigs, not the grass factor nor vitamin E. The stiffness syndrome probably not the effect of deficiency of this factor so much as a result of the accompanying deranged phosphorus metabolism. Search is being made for corrective factors among sterol derivatives (Oleson, 1947). A xanthine factor has been isolated from cane sugar juice (van Wageningen, 1947).

ophthalmic vitamin. Vitamin A.

avin. Antagonist to riboflavin (Euler and Karrer, 1946).

onic Acid. One of the three recognized essential fatty acids: $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{34}\text{O}_2$ possessing 4 unsaturated bonds which on full hydrogenation becomes arachidic acid, $\text{C}_{19}\text{H}_{38}\text{COOH}$.

onic Acid. White crystalline substance soluble in water and alcohol, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_6$, of the seven structural variants of this acid already synthesized, ascorbic acid is the most potent and is the compound indicated when vitamin C or simply ascorbic acid is mentioned:



orbyl palmitate. Agent used as lard preservative; possesses antibiotic activity (equivalent on molar basis).

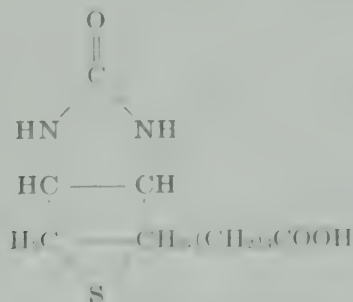
O. Trade name for dihydrotachysterol emphasizing its anti-tetany effect.

avidin. Also known as avidalbumin, the agent in raw egg-white which combines with biotin and renders it useless to the body.

Terms with this prefix will be found under the name of the substance, β -carotene under Carotene.

otometer. An American instrument (Frober-Faybor Company, Cleveland, Ohio, 1937) which is more sensitive than the Birch-Hirschfeld photometer in detecting border-line cases of vitamin A deficiency.

otin. Previously known as Vitamin H and Coenzyme R. Crystalline biotin obtained in 1941 by DuVigneaud, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{O}_5\text{N}_2\text{S}$. Commercially available as the crystalline monomethyl ester. Biotin is hexahydro-2-thieno-(3,4) imidazole-4-valeric acid:

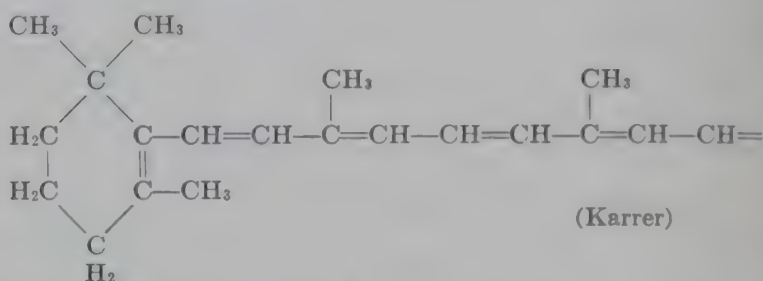


o forms postulated, alpha isolated from egg-yolk and beta from milk; probably identical. Biotin functions as a catalyst which joins with manganese in regulating CO_2 utilization in plant and animal cells. Biotin, also adenylic acid, activates deamination of aspartic acid, serine, and threonine (Lichstein and Christman, 1948).

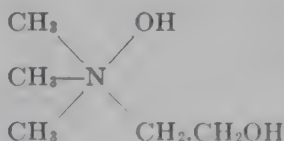
Hirschfeld photometer. An instrument devised in 1916 for the measurement of dark adaptation; manufactured by Carl Zeiss, Inc.

ite-binding substances (B.B.S.). Chiefly pyruvic acid in biologic fluids; increased in thiamine deficiency.

- Blue units.** Means of measuring the blue color obtained with β -carotene, vitamin A or carotene.
- Butter Growth Factor.** Appetite-stimulating factor in butter as compared with vegetable fats in the diet of rats when lactose is the only carbohydrate; advantage disappears when other carbohydrates are present.
- Calciferol.** Crystalline vitamin D₂, pure activated ergosterol.
- Calcifying vitamin.** Vitamin D.
- Capillary resistance.** Resistance of capillary wall to rupture under pressure.
- Carboxylase.** An enzyme which converts the carboxyl group ($-\text{COOH}$) into CO_2 .
- Carotenase.** An enzyme occurring in the liver which transforms carotene into active vitamin A.
- Carotene.** An intensely yellow hydrocarbon pigment, $\text{C}_{40}\text{H}_{56}$, three forms exist: alpha, beta, and gamma, beta being the most active precursor of vitamin A; its half-formula is:



- Crystalline carotene is available in separate alpha and beta forms or as a mixture consisting of 90% of the latter and 10% alpha.
- Carotin.** Identical with carotene.
- Carotinoid pigments.** A group of lipochromes which may be hydrocarbons (as carotene), alcohols (as kryptoxanthin), ketones or acids; characterized by many double bonds.
- Cereal germ.** Embryo of wheat removed in milling of flour; highly concentrated source of vitamin B₁ and E; also contains large amount of G and an appreciable amount of A; it is a good source of nicotinic acid and pyridoxin.
- Cevitamic acid.** The term for vitamin C favored by the Council of Pharmacy of the American Medical Association, whereas chemical opinion inclines toward ascorbic acid, which see.
- Chick antidermatitis factor.** Pantothenic acid.
- Cholane nucleus.** See under ergosterol.
- Cholesterilene sulfonic acid.** One of the vitamin D group (Yoder, 1936-37).
- Choline.** Hydroxyethyl trimethyl ammonium hydroxide:



- Citrin.** Original term used by investigators for vitamin P isolated from lemons. It is a mixture of eriodictin, eriodictyol glucoside, hesperidin and quercitrin-like flavone pigments. Related agents are hesperidin, chalcone and rutin. These manifest anti-oxidant activity toward epinephrine, also toward milk fat and lard.
- Member of the vitamin B complex, particularly concerned with metabolism of fats and the sulfur-containing amino acids. Commercially available as choline chloride.
- Coacetylase.** Possibly pantothenic acid functions in a coenzyme for acetylation processes, such as occur naturally as with choline or when drugs, like sulfonamides, are employed. Lipmann's enzyme (1947).

ylase. Thiamine pyrophosphate, diphosphothiamine or phosphorylated vitamin B₁; functions as a catalyst for the oxidation and decarboxylation of pyruvic acid which is an intermediary product in glycolate metabolism.

oxylase. Pyridoxal phosphate.

hydrogenase I. Cozymase; consists of nicotinamide, adenylic acid, and phosphoric acid.

Coenzyme A. Coacetylase (Kaplan and Lipmann, 1947).

Coenzyme I. Cozymase; diphosphopyridine-nucleotide; functions as a hydrogen transporter in biologic oxidations; in red blood cells rapidly destroyed by hemolysis; 20-35% per gram of whole human blood (Frost and Elvehjem, 1939).

Coenzyme II. Triphosphopyridinenucleotide; Warburg's coenzyme.

Coenzyme R. A growth and respiratory factor for many strains of the root nodule organism *Rhizobium*; Biotin.

Warburg's term for the cozymase of von Euler.

Stabilizers. Substances present in foods which stabilize the vitamins against inactivation.

Co-dehydrogenase. Co-dehydrogenase, diphosphopyridine nucleotide (nicotinamide, adenylic acid, ribose and phosphoric acid).

Xanthin. A yellow pigment capable of conversion into active vitamin A.

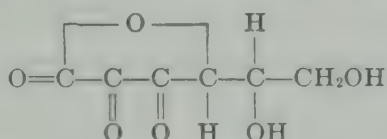
Unit. This unit for vitamin K is based on a specially prepared spinach arbitrarily assigned 500 units per gram. 1 gram pure vitamin K₁ = 12,000,000 Dam units.

Unit. One of several employed for vitamin K and very roughly equivalent to 25 Dam units.

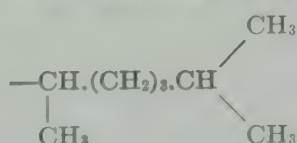
Adaptation. The increasing sensitivity of the eye to light in a "totally" darkened room.

Adaptation test. A light sensitivity test for determining vitamin A deficiency.

Dihydro-ascorbic acid. A reversibly oxidized form of ascorbic acid,



Dihydrocholesterol. When activated becomes vitamin D₃. The formula is similar to that shown for ergosterol except that the side chain is:

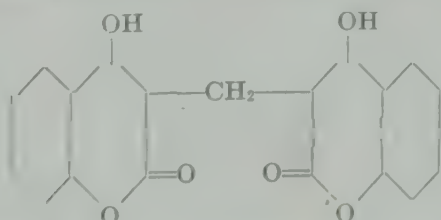


Dehydrogenase. An enzyme which catalyzes a reaction resulting in oxidation of metabolites by removal of hydrogen (Best and Taylor, 1937).

Dihydrositosterol. One of the provitamin D group (Wunderlich, 1936).

Antipyridine. Antagonist to pyridoxine (Ott, 1946).

Marol. 3,3'-methylene-bis-(4-hydroxycoumarin):

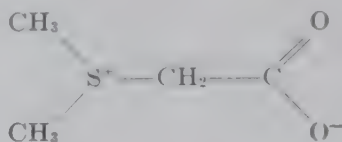


Synthesized by Link et al (1941); prolongs prothrombin and coagulation time; action inhibited by large doses of vitamin K; sometimes classed with the vitamins.

22-Dihydroergosterol. When activated becomes 22-dihydrocholecalciferol, vitamin D₄.

Dihydrotachysterol. An irradiation product of ergosterol with a rachitic effect; it combats tetany by raising the serum calcium content.

Dimethylthetin. Also called sulfobetaine, a biological source of methyl groups (duVigneaud, 1948):



Diopterin. Trade name for modified form of folic acid: alpha form of pteroyldiglutamic acid.

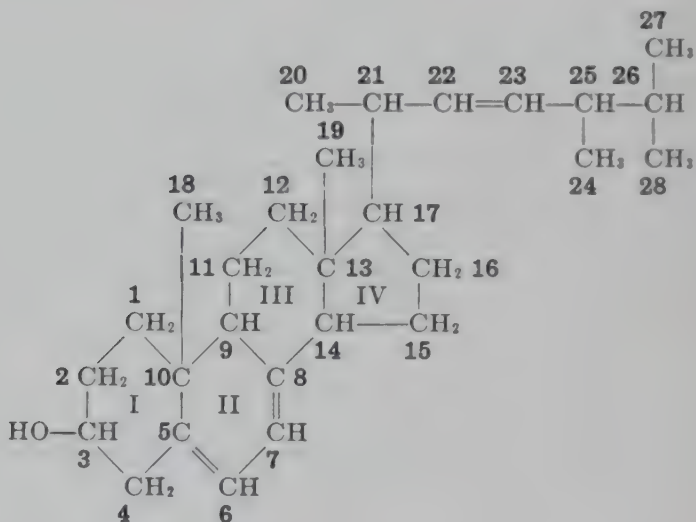
Diphosphopyridine nucleotide. Coenzyme I, consists of one nicotinamide group, one adenine, two pentose, and two phosphoric acid groups.

Durohydroquinone. A substance chemically related to vitamin E.

Dysaptation. Pathologic dark adaptation in which the time required for reaching the light threshold is prolonged beyond the normal period (Feldman).

Egg-white injury. Toxic effect of avidin in raw egg-white.

Ergosterol. Provitamin D₂; structural formula demonstrates numbering of positions in cholane nucleus and side chain:



Activation is thought to result in opening ring II between ninth and tenth carbon atoms, with the result that the eighteenth carbon atom drops a hydrogen and receives a double bond.

Eriodictin. See citrin.

Evans unit. This unit for vitamin E is based on the minimum requirement whereby normal rat litters are obtained under fixed conditions.

Factor I. Antidermatitis factor of Lepkovsky, Jukes, and Krause (1936); vitamin B₆.

Factor S. Essential for chicks, apparently correlated with or identical to strepogenin (Scott, 1947).

Factor U. A water-soluble growth factor required by chicks in addition to polished rice, washed fish meal, riboflavin and vitamin B₆ (Stokstad *et al.*, 1940).

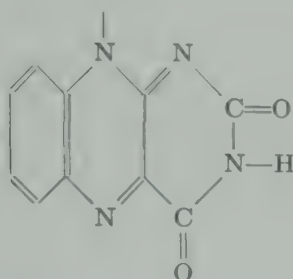
Factor W. Frost and Elvehjem's (1937) rat growth factor apparently required if riboflavin is to be fully effective; is multiple in nature, containing in concentrates appreciable amounts of pantothenic acid.

Factor Y. Antidermatitis factor of Chick and Copping (1930), possibly vitamin B₆.

Acids, essential. The three acids in this classification can replace each other dietetically. For structure, refer to linoleic, linolenic and arachidonic acids. While these acids are needed in the diet, other fatty acids must be made available to the body for controlling peroxidation at the double bonds, else toxic effects (as anemia) or destruction results. The latter is known to affect carotene, vitamins A, E, and certain members of the B complex with the consequence deficiency symptoms may arise.

Anticancer Factor. Lepkovsky and Jukes' (1936) water-soluble, chick anti-cancer factor obtained from liver extract; identified as pantothenic acid but undoubtedly multiple in nature; also used for rat growth factor.

Fluorescent pigments. Water-soluble, yellow-green fluorescent pigments which occur in plants, either free or bound to protein, chemically they are characterized by the iso-alloxazin nucleus:

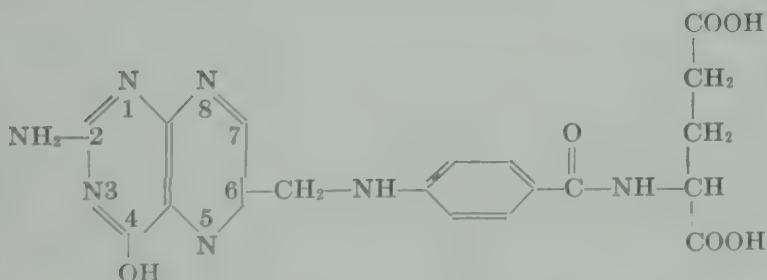


Though often designated as to source as hepatoflavin, ovoflavin, lactoflavin, etc., the common name for all is riboflavin because of the presence of the sugar ribose as a side chain on the tricyclic chromophore nucleus. Addition of this sugar to the chloroform-soluble nucleus renders the compound water-soluble. The only side chains compatible with vitamin potency are d-ribose and l-arabinose (Booher, 1938).

Phenazines. A group of pigments including vitamin P.

Protein. Protein combination with riboflavin (vitamin B₂) which functions as an oxidation catalyst; the yellow enzyme.

Acid. This term has been used to cover a group of related substances found in green leaves. The synthetic product obtained in 1946 is known as pteroylglutamic acid. Other active agents include pterioic acid, pteroyl triglutamic and heptaglutamic derivatives. The suggested chemical structure involves a pyrimido-(4,5)-pyrazine (or pterin) nucleus linked to para-aminobenzoic acid and this in turn to glutamic acid:



Terms describing folic acid activity: Vitamin B₉, L. casei factor, amin M, PGA, pteroylglutamic acid (synthetic).

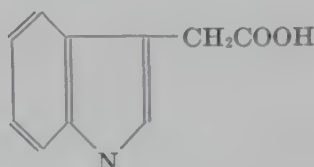
acid conjugate. Pteroyl-hexa-glutamyl-glutamic acid.

is vitamin B. Vitamin B₁; thiamin.

Carotene. Terms with this prefix will be found under the name of the substance, as gamma-carotene under Carotene.

mg. 0.001 mg. = 1 γ , used for convenience in designating concentrations of very low value; same as microgram, μ g.

- Glare blindness.** An abnormal sensitiveness to brilliant illumination which may be due to vitamin A deficiency; the term, *nyctalopia*, is sometimes applied to this condition.
- Goldberger's vitamin.** Vitamin G, vitamin P-P, pellagra-preventive vitamin.
- Grass Juice Factor.** A growth-promoting, water-soluble factor found in summer milk, green grass and some vegetables apparently tested by guinea pigs, rabbits and rats.
- György.** This Hungarian name is borne by two noted investigators in the realm of water-soluble vitamins and respiratory enzymes: Albert Szent-Györgyi and Paul György.
- Hemeralopia.** Literally, day sight, but by convention used for night blindness.
- Hepatoflavin.** Flavin isolated from liver; riboflavin, vitamin B₂.
- Hesperidin.** A flavanone glucoside found in lemons and oranges which when acted upon by a mild alkali gives the acid-unstable hesperetin chalcone.
- Hexachlorocyclohexane.** An insecticide analogue of inositol inhibiting its action in yeast.
- Hexahydroxycyclohexane.** Inositol.
- Hexuronic acid.** Early and erroneous chemical name for vitamin C.
- 7-Hydroxycholesterol.** One of the provitamin D group (Bills, 1938).
- Indole acetic acid.** Agent found in corn which has a pellagra-preventive effect:



- Inhibitors.** Substances chemical related to vitamins which are capable of antagonizing biological activity of their analogues.
- Inositol.** Inosite. Cyclic hexahydric alcohol, $C_6H_6(OH)_6$; member of vitamin B complex; mouse alopecia factor (Wooley, 1940); growth factor for rats and curative of spectacled eye (Pavcek and Baum, 1941). May be essential part of enzyme α -amylase (R. J. Williams, 1948).
- International Unit of Vitamin A.** 0.0006 mg. beta-carotene.
- International Unit of Vitamin B₁.** 0.003 mg. thiamin hydrochloride (adopted by international committee on vitamin standardization, 1938; accepted by Council on Foods, A. M. A., 1939).
- International Unit of Vitamin C.** 0.05 mg. ascorbic acid.
- International Unit of Vitamin D.** 0.025 γ calciferol.
- Keratitis.** A sometimes blinding eye disease caused by riboflavin deficiency.
- Keratomalacia.** Softening of the cornea; last stage of eye manifestations of vitamin A deficiency.
- Kit ol.** Substance found in whale liver oil which decomposes on heating to vitamin A; occurs in other fish liver oils also, except in some fresh water species; is chemically but not biologically provitamin A.
- "Koagulations-vitamin."** Vitamin K.
- Kryptoxanthin.** A yellow pigment, $C_{40}H_{56}OH$, capable of conversion into active vitamin A; found in egg-yolk and yellow corn.
- Lactoflavin.** Flavin isolated from milk; riboflavin, vitamin B₂.
- L. C. F.** L. casei factor; folic acid.
- Light threshold.** Smallest amount of light visible to the dark-adapted eye.
- Linoleic acid.** One of the three recognized essential fatty acids. $C_{17}H_{31}COOH$, possessing two unsaturated bonds. On complete hydrogenation stearic acid, $C_{17}H_{35}COOH$, is formed.

$$CH_3(CH_2)_4CH=CHCH_2CH=CH(CH_2)_2COOH$$
- Linolenic acid.** Another of the essential fatty acids, $C_{18}H_{31}COOH$, possessing three unsaturated bonds:

$$CH_3CH_2CH=CHCH_2CH=CHCH_2CH=CH(CH_2)_2COOH$$

Coacetylase. An enzyme containing pantothenic acid involved in the metabolism of aromatic amines and in choline metabolism.

Name applied to fraction from pancreas which prevents or cures fatty livers in depancreatized dogs.

Factor. *Lactobacillus lactis* Dorner requires two agents which have been detected and named LLD and TJ factors. LLD factor apparently related to activity of commercial liver preparations used in treating pernicious anemia, and has been labelled vitamin B₁₂ (Rickes, 1948).

Blue units. Means of measuring the blue color obtained with riboflavin and vitamin A or carotene in which the Lovibond glasses serve as standards.

Ergosterol. Isomer of ergosterol obtained during activation, non-antivitaminic.

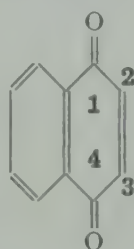
Lycopodium. A red carotenoid pigment found in tomato and watermelon.

Menaquinone. Trade name for synthetic vitamin K, 2-methyl-1:4-naphthoquinone.

Menthone. British trade name comparable to the American mena-

Multi-Purpose Food. an all-vegetable, low-cost protein food recently sent from the U. S. A. to famine areas; a source of protein, iron, vitamin A, thiamine, riboflavin, niacin and vitamin D.

Naphthoquinones. The nucleus in vitamin K:

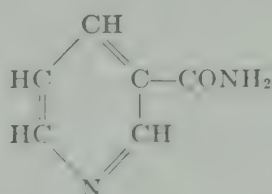


Vitamin A. Geometrical isomer of vitamin A isolated from fish-liver oil (Robeson and Baxter, 1947). Present in synthetic vitamin A.

"Vitamin B₁." Vitamin B₁; thiamine

Nicotinic acid. Term recommended for nicotinic acid when addressed to the general public to avoid the connotation of poisoning popularly associated with nicotine. Scientific literature should continue to use the term nicotinic acid.

Nicotinamide and nicotinic acid. The pellagra-preventive vitamin; Goldberger's vitamin; pyridine- β -carboxylic acid, C₅H₄N.COOH, or the amide:



Night-blindness. Subnormal acuity of vision in dim light or slowness of recovery of vision after exposure to a dazzling light.

Night blindness. Used by some to designate night-blindness or glare blindness.

Night sight. Literally, night sight, used by some for night-blindness.

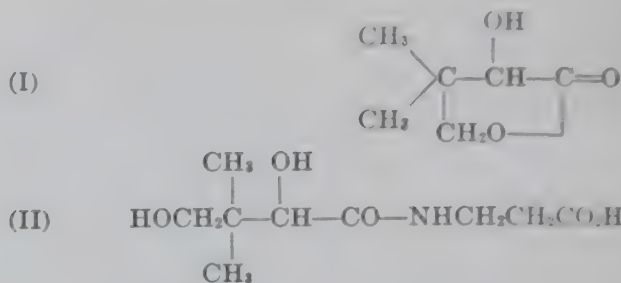
Unit. 1 I.U. or U.S.P. unit of vitamin D = 1.6 Oslo units.

Flavin. Flavin isolated from eggs, riboflavin, vitamin B₂.

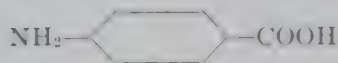
Para-aminobenzoic acid.

Pantothenate Inhibitor. Several are known, such as phenylpanthenone, which is a bacteriostatic agent inhibited also by glutamic acid, proline or histidine.

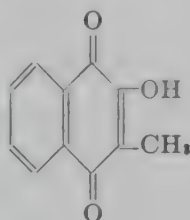
Pantothenic acid. The 8th vitamin to be synthesized (Williams, Major, and Keresztesy and Finkelstein, 1940); the physiologically active pantothenic acid (II) is α -hydroxy- β , β -dimethyl- γ -butyrolactone (I) condensed with β -alanine:



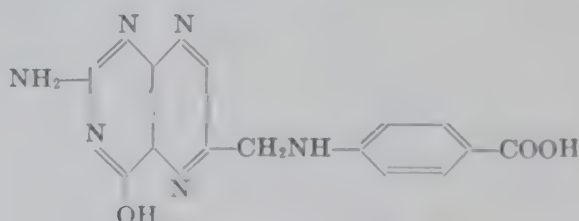
Pantothenic acid functions as a coenzyme regulating acetylation reactions.
Para-aminobenzoic Acid. A member of the Vitamin B Complex.



It antagonizes the action of the sulfonamide drugs (Woods, 1944).
Pellagra-preventive vitamin. Nicotinic acid or its amide.
Permeability vitamin. Vitamin P, the existence of which is disputed.
Petechiæ. Small, subcutaneous clots caused by rupture of the capillary walls.
PGA. Pteroylglutamic acid, synthetic folic acid.
Phosphatase. An enzyme which releases inorganic P from organic combination.
Phthiacol. A yellow pigment isolated from human tubercular bacilli known to possess vitamin K activity; somewhat toxic; vitamin K can be converted into phthiacol (Fieser, 1940).



Porphyryns. Certain pigments which result from abnormal degradation of hemoglobin or from precursors of hemoglobin; associated with nicotinic acid deficiency.
Poulsson unit. Same as Oslo unit of vitamin D.
P-P body. Term used by Goldberger for factor preventive of human pellagra; formerly believed identical with vitamin B₂ or G, now thought to be nicotinic acid or its amide.
Protective factor X. Vitamin-like substance which protects against egg-white injury (Boas, 1927).
Prothrombin factor. Vitamin K.
Provitamin A. Carotene.
Provitamin D. Ergosterol and related sterols.
Pterins. See Pterioic acid.
Pterioic acid. Precursor of folic acid. Its formula shows the pteridine nucleus combined with para-aminobenzoic acid.



phosphate. A coenzyme unit in transaminase systems involving aspartic and aspartic acids. Also, a coenzyme in decarboxylation of glutamic acid and tyrosine. Also, may aid in converting tryptophan into ammonia and indole into tryptophane.

ine. Irradiated pyridoxamine is under investigation as a growth agent for gram-negative micro-organisms not affected by penicillin in typhoid and dysentery (Shwartzman, 1948). See also vitamin B₆.

See vitamin B₆.

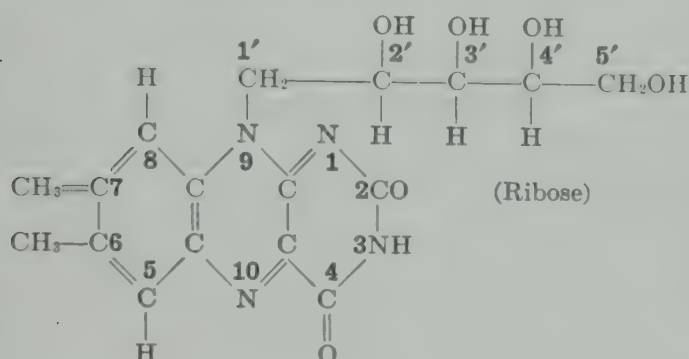
acid. $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}\cdot\text{COOH}$,

Visual yellow, the pigment which results when rhodopsin is bleached by light.

in. On hydrolysis yields formic acid and pterioic acid, a precursor of folic acid.

n. Visual purple, the photosensitive pigment of the rods of the retina.

n. Lacto-, ovo-, or hepatoflavin, vitamin B₂ or G, an orange-crystalline pigment (12 mg. dissolves in 100 cc. of water at 27.5° C. to give a yellow-green fluorescent solution); 6,7-dimethyl-9-(1'-d-riboityl)-luminazine, $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{20}\text{N}_4\text{O}_6$.



A glucoside of quercitrin obtained from many sources but commonly associated with buckwheat. It decreases capillary fragility in man under conditions where the fragility has first been increased (Griffith, 1939).

n-Bourquin (1931) Unit of Vitamin B₂. Earlier taken as 0.0025 mg. of riboflavin; accepted by Council on Foods, A. M. A., 1939, as about 0.001 mg. riboflavin; stated by Munsell (1940) to be equivalent to 3.0-micrograms.

n-Chase unit. A unit for vitamin B₁ variously regarded as equivalent to one-half or one-fourth of the International Unit; although varying from 0.7 to 4 or 6 Sherman units, Munsell (1940) suggests that 1 International Unit generally is equivalent to 1 Sherman unit.

n unit for vitamin C. Equivalent to 10-15 I.U., lower value suggested by Munsell (1940).

n-Munsell unit. Equivalent to about 1.4 I.U. of vitamin A (1933); Council on Foods of A. M. A. (1939) insists upon use of factor 0.75 for conversion of Sherman units into International Units; Munsell (1940) states that 1 Sherman unit be taken as 0.7 I.U.

actor. *Streptococcus lactis* R factor, possibly pterioic acid. See pterioic acid.

ck unit. Equivalent to 3.3 I.U. of vitamin D.

enin. Growth factor and nutritive essential for certain hemolytic *Staphylococci* (Woolley, 1941); probably a peptide.

taine. See dimethylthetin.

erol. Isomer of ergosterol obtained during activation, slightly toxic.

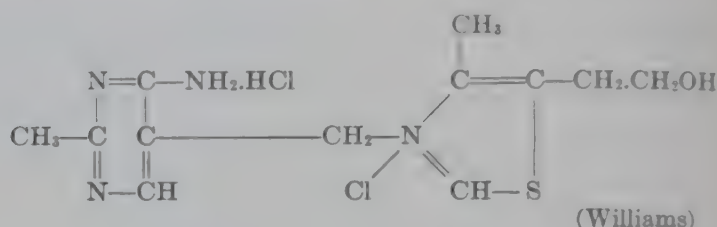
erol. Isomer of ergosterol obtained during activation, not antitumor.

Teropterin. Trade name for pteroyltriglutamic acid (the γ -form). 5 isomers are recognized by suitable linkages of alpha and beta forms.

Thayer-Doisy Unit. One of the many units employed for α -tocopherol, roughly equivalent to 30 Dam units.

Thiamine. Vitamin B₁, aneurin, torulin.

Thiamine hydrochloride. U.S.P. term for thiamine chloride, the hydrochloride of vitamin B₁, C₁₂H₁₇N₄SO.Cl.HCl:

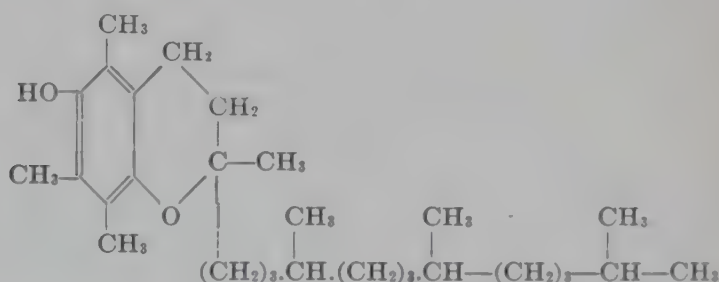


Thiochrome. A blue fluorescent compound derived from thiamine by oxidation, possessing no vitamin activity.

Tillmans' indicator. 2,6-dichlor-phenol-indophenol, used for determining ascorbic acid.

TJ factor. See LLD factor.

α -tocopherol. One of the forms of vitamin E, deriving its name from the Greek, to bear child; reddish-yellow, highly viscous oil soluble in most fat solvents and the majority of vegetable oils; 2-methyl-2-hexadecyl-6-hydroxy-5,7,8-trimethylchromane, C₂₉H₅₀O₂:



β -Tocopherol. Xylotocopherol, C₂₈H₄₆O₂, one of the E group; ortho, meta, and para forms are all active; the para position of hydroxyl group and oxygen bridge is vital to E activity.

α -Tocopherol. An isomer of β -tocopherol, found particularly in cottonseed and corn embryo oils.

α -Tocoquinone. Oxidation product of α -tocopherol, first thought to have E activity.

Torulin. Vitamin B₁; thiamine.

Toxisterol. Isomer of ergosterol obtained during activation, not antirachitic, toxic.

Transaminase. Also called co-aminopherase. This enzyme reaction involves mutual exchange of amino and keto groups, possibly acting through pyridoxal \rightleftharpoons pyridoxamine.

Tri-ethylcholine. Antagonist of choline by competing with it.

Triphosphopyridine nucleotide. Coenzyme II, contains one nicotinamide group, one adenine, two pentose, and three phosphoric acid groups.

United States Pharmacopeia units for vitamins A and D. U.S.P. XII (1947) unit is the same as International Unit.

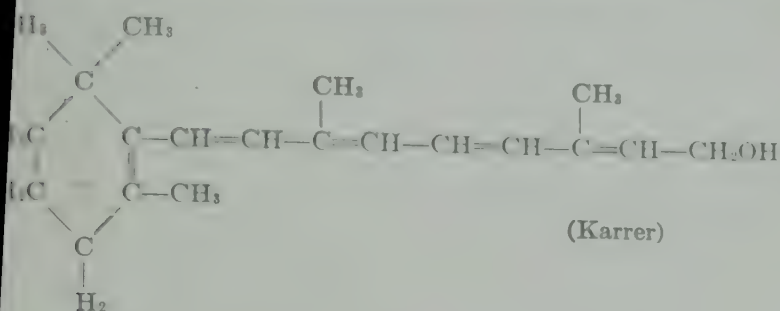
"Universal" vitamin. Pantothenic acid.

Vaccenic Acid. Isomer of oleic acid, C₁₈H₃₄COOH, with double bond between C₁₁ and C₁₂ carbons; good growth factor for rats found in summer butter.

ple. Rhodopsin, the pigment found in the retinal rods which vitamin A for its production.

ow. Retinene, the pigment which results when rhodopsin is by light.

Fat-soluble, anti-xerophthalmic vitamin, $C_{20}H_{32}OH$:

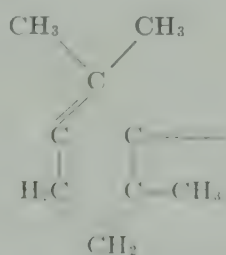


A Standard. Vitamin A acetate in corn oil (new as of July 1947).

A synthetic. Synthesized by Arens and van Dorp (1947) and commercial production begun in September 1947. Identical with natural vitamin A of marine origin, a mixture of vitamin A and neo-vitamin A.

A₂. Examination of tissues of salt water fish and their liver oils with the fluorescent microscope reveals a brilliant yellow fluorescence which is ascribed to vitamin A. Fresh water fish show a brownish-yellow fluorescence. The latter has been designated vitamin A₂. Both are destroyed by irradiation.

Vitamin A₂ has been obtained in pure form by Shantz (1948). Its structure is unsettled although some believe it is related to vitamin A. It is proposed to be beta-carotene. The Karrer formula (1941) suggests the following as opening thus:



B. This term should not be used; for clarity "Vitamin B Complex" is preferred.

B₁. Thiamine, a pyrimidine-thiazole compound of which the chemical formula is $C_{12}H_{17}N_4SOCl_2$, anti-neuritic vitamin, anti-beriberi vitamin, thiamine; for chemical formula, see thiamine hydrochloride.

B₂. Vitamin G, as ordinarily used is a complex consisting of several factors chief of which are riboflavin and nicotinic acid, present in yeast. It is proposed to employ B₂ as designation for riboflavin; sometimes for that part of the B complex containing riboflavin and B₆; for chemical formula, see Riboflavin.

B₃. Williams and Waterman's (1927) highly thermolabile factor in yeast, necessary for weight maintenance in birds. Dam and Ahlstrom's gizzard erosion factor may be identical with B₃.

B₄. Formerly called B₁₂; Reader's (1929) antiparalysis factor in yeast may involve a condition due to chronic B₁ deficiency; found in yeast.

Used by some to designate certain fatty acids, as linoleic, to nutrition; not endorsed by American Biochemical Association nomenclature Committee; no vitamin by this name exists at (1949)

Term adopted by the American Society of Biological Chemists to describe the antidermatitis or antipellagra component of the B complex. The corresponding British term is B₂. Present (1940) to consider vitamin G a complex with riboflavin known

H. Water-soluble vitamin which occurs in a complex insoluble in fat and water; prevents egg-white injury; biotin, coenzyme R and vitamin H are the same.

I. This letter assigned by Booher (1937) to a rat growth factor; Day, Bing and Dilley (1928) to a factor needed by trout; used by György for a factor found in liver, kidney and yeast whose absence causes a typical dermatitis in rats, now known as B₆, the anti-acrodynia factor; applied by György (1939) to agent which counteracts toxicity of vitamin A.

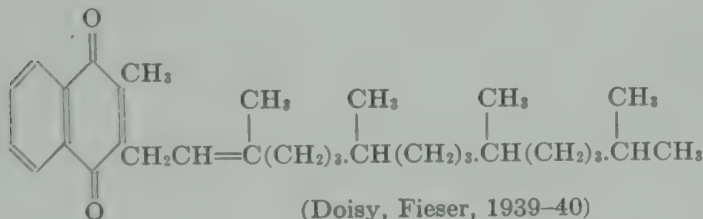
H₂. György's factor which offsets egg-white injury.

L. Centanni's alcohol extractable factor preventive of digestive disturbances in pigeons; not antineuritic; sometimes called B₇.

J. Von Euler and Malmberg's fruit factor said to be corrective of scurvy in guinea pigs.

K. Fat-soluble, antihemorrhagic factor; several derivatives of naphthoquinone have been shown to have vitamin potency; the fat-soluble 1,4-dihydroxy-2-methylnaphthalene and 4-amino-2-methylnaphthol are also active (Doisy).

K₁. The alfalfa principle which is a yellow oil, 2-methyl-3-phytylnaphthoquinone,

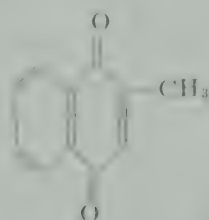


(Doisy, Fieser, 1939-40)

in K₁ oxide. The introduction of oxygen occurs by opening the double bond in the ring at positions 2 and 3 where the methyl and phytyl side chains occur. This oxide is unlike its parent in that it is not acted upon by light.

in K₂. A 2,3 substituted 1,4 naphthoquinone; both positions may be occupied by the same unsaturated hydrocarbon chain or there may be a different length chain on 3 and a methyl group on 2. Fieser, Doisy, 1940.

in K Synthetic. This is more powerful than the natural form. It is 2-methyl-1:4-naphthoquinone. In Vitamin K₁ which is found



green leaves the side chain is the phytyl radical. In Vitamin K₂, the product obtained with putrefaction processes, the side chain is a dimethylallyl radical, notably unsaturated. The potency of 2-methyl-1:4-naphthoquinone is about two-thirds that of Vitamin K₁.

- Vitamin K Standard: 1 microgram of 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone = 1 unit.
- Vitamin L₁.** Extracted from cow's liver in concentrated form.
- Vitamin L₂.** Extracted from dried yeast. The L vitamins prevent lactation failure in rats from hypophyseal dysfunction.
- Vitamin M.** Member of the B complex needed by monkeys for healthy blood; folic acid subsequently shown to possess vitamin M potency (Day, 1948).
- Vitamin P.** Rusznyák and Szent-Györgyi's flavone compound originally designated as citrin, which see. Several natural compounds are known to supplement the effect of vitamin C in maintaining normal capillary resistance.
- Vitamin P-P.** Pellagra-preventive, Goldberger's vitamin; nicotinic acid or its amide.
- Vitamin U.** Unidentified anti-ulcer factor (chicks and guinea pigs); fat-soluble and heat labile; found in alfalfa, kale, fresh milk and cream, raw egg-yolk, wheat bran, liver fat, soybean and olive oils, and gastric mucosa (Cheney, 1948).
- Vitamin X.** Former designation of vitamin E.
- Warburg's coenzyme.** Triphosphopyridine nucleotide.
- Warburg's enzyme.** The yellow respiratory enzyme, a flavo-protein, a combined form of vitamin B₂.
- Wheat-germ.** Embryo of wheat removed in milling of flour; highly concentrated source of vitamin B₁ and E; also contains large amount of C and an appreciable amount of A.
- Xanthophyll.** Used as synonymous with lutein, C₄₀H₅₆O₂, a pigment in green leaves; or as the group name for certain carotenoids of alcohol or ketone structure; not a precursor of vitamin A.
- Xanthosis cutis.** Pigmentation of the skin attributable to yellow dietary pigments.
- Xerophthalmia.** A dry and thickened condition of the conjunctiva; occurs in marked vitamin A deficiency.
- Xerosis conjunctivæ.** Dryness of the conjunctiva, second stage in vitamin A deficiency.
- Yellow enzyme.** Warburg's enzyme, a flavo-protein which functions as a hydrogen acceptor in biologic oxidations; a combined form of vitamin B₂.
- Zeaxanthin.** A xanthophyll which is found in yellow corn and egg-yolk.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES.*

ction.—Alcoholic beverages of various kinds may become caloric articles of diet and will tend to play an important role in the lives of a great proportion of the population, particularly after the elimination of prohibition in America. For reasons of fuel value, their appetizing and stomachic reactions, and as refreshers, alcoholic beverages may find permanent places in the diets of many people. A comprehensive list of their compound fuel values is found elsewhere.

Types of Alcoholic Beverages.

Liquors.—As the name implies, the chief raw material used in the preparation of malt liquors is malt—usually barley malt. After extraction of the ground malt is boiled with hops, then cooled, and, after adding yeast, is fermented; subsequent storage of the fermented fluid for three months or more produces maturity and is accompanied by a characteristic taste and aroma.

Various types of malt liquors, such as **lager beer, ale, porter,** etc., are the result of variations in the process of manufacture, such as the use of different species of yeast, different amounts and kinds of malt and hops. Various methods of processing, such as the use of specific temperature ranges during the period of mixing (mashing) the ground malt with water or during the main fermentation and storage, again alter the end-product.

Malt liquors have a low alcohol content compared with wines and distilled liquors, but usually have a considerably higher amount of carbohydrate and protein. In countries in which the per capita consumption of beer is high, beer furnishes a considerable part of the daily caloric requirement of the average person. Beer, itself, in moderate quantities is not fattening, if not taken with excessive amounts of food. The carbohydrates present in beers are mainly maltose and dextrin, both of which are changed by the human digestive processes into glucose. Most of the malt liquors, like lager beer (the most prevalent malt liquor sold in several countries) and pilsener ale, contain carbon dioxide gas which is refreshing and thirst quenching. Other malt liquors, like stock ale, etc., are lacking in carbon dioxide and are, in spite of their bitter and malty character, of a vinous nature. Light beer usually contains somewhat less carbohydrate and somewhat more alcohol than dark beer.

Filtered beer, as sold in the United States, is being subjected in the brewery to a pasteurization process which destroys the last vestige of yeast or other microorganisms present. Consequently,

* Data supplied by "Jacob Ruppert," New York.

bottled beer can be kept for weeks at room temperature without turning cloudy or sour.

Keg beer (i. e., draught beer, sold in restaurants) is not subjected to any pasteurization, and, therefore, would spoil when exposed for only a very few days to room temperature, due to the rapid development of the small trace of yeast and microorganisms still present. Keg beer, consequently, has to be refrigerated from the time it leaves the brewery until it is consumed. Usually there is no difference in the composition of keg and bottled beer.

Bock beer is the name of a lager beer of dark color. It is usually sold at Easter time and represents a beer made with the use of more malt and hops per barrel, and, therefore, often contains more alcohol and more carbohydrates than regular lager beer.

Ale, porter and stout are malt liquors differing from lager beer mainly in the use of another type of yeast, higher fermentation and storage temperatures, thereby producing a particular flavor. Also, the hops are sometimes applied in such a way that a very pronounced hop aroma is produced. Ale, porter and stout are usually only slightly higher in alcohol and carbohydrate content than regular lager beers, but certain brands of stock ale, export stout, etc., exceed in this respect even the strongest luxury lager beers. Malt liquors in general produce a distinctly alkaline ash.

Wines.—Wines are produced in all parts of the world in which grapes grow and where temperate climate prevails. They vary considerably in taste, bouquet, color and composition, depending mainly upon the characteristics of the grape from which the juice is pressed and the exact processing methods connected with the fermentation and aging of the wine. There are many species of grapes: Muscatel, Zinfandel, Concord, Diamond, Delaware, Riesling, etc.; but depending on soil, fertilization, altitude, climate, control of insect pests and vintage year, great differences are observed in the quality and aroma of the grapes and of the resulting wine.

Wines contain usually two to four times the percentage of alcohol present in malt liquors, but are much lower in carbohydrates. As a matter of fact, many of the ordinary wines, such as Claret and Moselle wines, are practically free from carbohydrates. Sweet wines, of course, have a considerably higher carbohydrate content.

Yeast cannot produce more than about 14 per cent alcohol in any saccharine fluid—even if additional sugar is present. The term “dry,” in contrast to “sweet,” refers solely to the degree of sweetness presented to the taste, a “dry” wine being less sweet than a “sweet” wine.

For classification, wines may be subdivided as follows:

Acid Wines.—All wines contain tartaric, lactic and other acids. They vary greatly as to the quantity of their acid content, Moselle wines being the most acid. Like most vegetable products, wines have, in spite of their acid taste, an alkaline ash. The following wines are arranged in the order of their increasing acidity: Sherry.

ret, madeira, burgundy, sauternes, rhine and moselle wine. The most acid wines are also the ones lowest in carbohydrate.

Aromatic Wines.—Certain species of grapes, such as muscatel, etc., are exceedingly pronounced in flavor and transmit aroma to the wine. Other wines, principally Italian vermouth, etc., are prepared from wines with the addition of various essences, such as cinnamon, which lend their characteristic to the wine.

Table Wines.—Wines from Bordeaux, Sauternes and the Rhine of excellent flavor and quality. They are esteemed by connoisseurs all over the world as table wines because of their mild, agreeable and healthful effect. It would fill volumes to enumerate all of the names on the labels of these popular wines, each small village insists on a prominent display of its name on the labels of the bottles, even stating in addition the name of the exact location of the vineyard from which the grapes have been harvested.

Harsh or Astringent Wines.—These are usually red wines, which are characterized by the presence of tannin substances, derived from the grape skins, and, therefore, are considered to be largely constipating. Claret and Burgundy are typical red wines.

Sparkling Wines.—Sparkling wines (champagne, sparkling burgundy, etc.) were originated in France, but now are produced from vines of many countries either by bottle fermentation (natural) or by the impregnation (artificial) of the wine with carbon dioxide. Degrees of sweetness can be obtained in champagnes, from the "dryest" to the sweetest.

Strong Wines (Fortified Wines).—Port and sherry are wines which are produced by adding distilled liquor, usually either pure alcohol or young brandy, to the fully or partially fermented grape juice. Depending upon the amount of residual sugar present in the wine and the distillate is added, either dry or sweet sherry or port wines are obtained. Sometimes evaporated (sun-dried) grape juices are added to obtain sweetness. Exceedingly warm storage of the sherry and port wines is also responsible for the characteristic taste of these wines. Malaga and madeira wines are also frequently fortified.

Distilled Liquors.—Distilled liquors owe their stimulating action to the high percentage of the alcohol present. Other ingredients, such as the sugar contained in cordials and the oil of peppermint contained in Crème de Menthe, sometimes are present and tend to make the combination of components more agreeable to the senses. Liquors are made in what seems to be an almost uncountable variety of styles and flavors. Some of the distilled liquors are only used as flavoring agents, such as bitters (orange bitters), etc.

Distilled liquors usually have an alcohol content of 20 to 40 percent by weight; in some cases though, they are not consumed in such strength. In highballs and cocktails distilled liquors are diluted, because of their mixture with water or other diluents, in a diluted condition that their alcoholic concentration is often far below that of wine.

For certain distilled liquors, principally whiskies, brandies and rums, several years of aging are required to develop the proper flavor and appeal. In the case of rye and bourbon whiskies, the type of wood used for the barrel in which the liquor is aged and the degree of charring applied to the barrel have an important effect on the flavor of the liquor produced. Tannin and coloring substances, wood caramel products and soluble wood components contribute a great proportion of the flavor finally present. For liquors made from pure 95 per cent alcohol, such as most of the cordials, no aging is required, the beverage being ready for consumption soon after adding the flavoring and compounding.

Distillates from Fermented Fruit Juices.—The distillate from grape wine is designated as brandy or cognac, the distillate from cider is applejack or apple brandy, the distillate from fermented plums is plum brandy, from fermented cherries is white cherry brandy, etc.

Distillates from Fermented Saccharine Solutions.—The distillate from fermented sugar cane juice or molasses is known as rum; the distillate from palm wine is called arrac, highly esteemed as an addition to hot tea. Scotch whiskey is distilled from the fermented infusion of a specially aromatized (smoky) barley malt; rye whiskey is distilled from the fermented infusion of barley malt, rye malt and rye; bourbon whiskey is distilled from the fermented infusion of malt and corn; Irish whiskey exists in two varieties, one of which is distilled from potatoes and is considered a cheap type of whiskey, the other is very similar to Scotch whiskey and likewise is made from barley malt.

Distillates from Alcoholic Infusions of Aromatic Seeds and Herbs.—When aromatic substances like caraway seeds, juniper berries, anise seeds, mint, orange peels, etc., are steeped in a mixture of rectified alcohol and water and are distilled, the distillates contain the respective flavor and represent such liquors as kummel, gin, aquavit, anise, etc. Sometimes sugar, coloring matter of additional flavoring substances, such as alcoholic fluid extracts of angelica, cocoa, vermouth, etc., are being added to the distillate, and either bitters or cordials, such as crème de menthe, crème de cacao, curaçao, anisette, benedictine, etc., are obtained. If fresh fruits are sweetened and macerated in the presence of pure alcohol, the filtrate represents such "fine cordials" as cherry brandy, apricot brandy, etc. Eggnog is the sweetened mixture of brandy with the yolk of egg. Sweet cordials are taken usually after dinner.

COMPOSITION AND FUEL VALUES OF ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES.

Introduction.—In evaluating the caloric intake of the individual, his alcoholic habits should be taken into consideration. It is for the convenience of the nutritionist that this table has been elaborated. It provides in readily available form authentic data on the composition of various alcoholic preparations. This should enable

an to discuss these matters competently or to prescribe
ly those beverages which are desirable.

llowing table contains the composition and fuel values of
l internationally known alcoholic beverages. With few ex-
trade-marked products have been omitted. These analyses
ost recent date and are offered with an assurance of their

*and variations of composition are found in any one of the enu-
beverages, consequently only average values are presented.*

oldface numerals indicate the number of grams and Calories
verage portion. The *plain numerals* indicate the percentage
tion thereof in weight per cent.

TABLE 82. — Beverage Glass Equivalents.

1 Cordial glass (fluid)	=	20 cc.
1 Brandy glass (fluid)	=	30 cc.
1 Sherry glass (fluid)	=	30 cc.
1 Wine glass (fluid)	=	100 cc.
1 Cup* (fluid)	=	236 cc.

TABLE 83. — Composition and Fuel Values of Alcoholic Beverages.†

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				
	Grams.	Household measure.	Alcohol.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
Malt Liquors:‡							
<i>American:</i>							
Ale, cream ale, carbon- ated ale	230	1 cup	8.9 3.8	8.0 3.5	1.1 0.5	—	100
Bock beer	230	1 cup	10.3 4.5	13.8 6.0	1.6 0.7	—	135
Lager beer (draught or bottle)	230	1 cup	8.5 3.7	9.2 4.0	1.1 0.5	—	100
Porter, stout	230	1 cup	13.8 6.0	11.5 5.0	1.3 0.6	—	150
Stock ale, still ale, India ale	230	1 cup	13.8 6.0	11.5 5.0	1.3 0.6	—	150
"3.2" beer	230	1 cup	6.9 3.0	6.9 3.0	1.1 0.5	—	80
<i>European:</i>							
Ale, porter, stout, Eng- lish for export	230	1 cup	13.8 6.0	11.5 5.0	1.3 0.6	—	150
Bock beer and related special beers	230	1 cup	10.3 4.5	13.8 6.0	1.8 0.8	—	135
Lager beers, Central European, average quality	230	1 cup	8.5 3.7	9.2 4.0	1.1 0.5	—	100
Munich beer (usually dark)	230	1 cup	8.0 3.5	10.3 4.5	1.3 0.6	—	105

the cup referred to is the "Standard Measuring Cup."

urnished by "Jacob Ruppert," New York.

alt liquors usually contain about 0.2 per cent lactic acid and acid phosphates,
4 per cent by weight of carbon dioxide. There is also present about 0.2 per
neral salts. In general, the alcoholic percentage by weight of all malt liquors
from 1.5 to 7 per cent.

ndicates negligible or absent.

TABLE 83. Composition and Fuel Values of Alcoholic Beverages.
(Continued.)

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion				
	Grams.	Household measure.	Alcohol.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
I. Malt Liquors:—(Continued.)							
Pilsener beer (always light)	230	1 cup	8.9 3.8	8.0 3.5	1.1 0.5	—	100
Salvator, Maerzen beers	230	1 cup	10.3 4.5	13.8 6.0	1.8 0.8	—	133
Weiss beer	230	1 cup	4.6 2.0	4.6 2.0	1.1 0.5	—	53
II. Wines:†							
A. American:							
California red wines, claret, Zinfandel, Chianti, Burgundy, etc.	100	Wine glass	10.0 10.0	0.5 0.5	0.2 0.2	—	75
California white wines, Chablis, Riesling, Rhine	100	Wine glass	10.5 10.5	0.5 0.5	0.2 0.2	—	75
California white wine, sauterne	100	Wine glass	10.5 10.5	4.0 4.0	0.2 0.2	—	90
Champagne from California and New York State	100	Wine glass	11.0 11.0	3.0 3.0	0.2 0.2	—	90
<i>Sweet and dessert wines:</i>							
Catawba (white)	100	Wine glass	13.0 13.0	12.0 12.0	0.2 0.2	—	140
Muscatelle	100	Wine glass	15.0 15.0	14.0 14.0	0.2 0.2	—	165
Port	100	Wine glass	15.0 15.0	14.0 14.0	0.3 0.3	—	165
Sherry	100	Wine glass	15.0 15.0	8.0 8.0	0.3 0.3	—	140
B. European:							
Bordeaux wine (French)	100	Wine glass	10.5 10.5	2.0 2.0	0.2 0.2	—	80
Champagne, white, dry	100	Wine glass	11.5 11.5	1.0 1.0	0.2 0.0	—	85
Champagne, white, sweet	100	Wine glass	11.0 11.0	10.0 10.0	0.2 0.2	—	120
Claret (red), French, Italian or Spanish	100	Wine glass	8.0 8.0	0.5 0.5	0.2 0.2	—	60
Madeira wine	100	Wine glass	14.0 14.0	3.0 3.0	0.2 0.2	—	110
Moselle wine (German)	100	Wine glass	8.5 8.5	0.5 0.5	0.2 0.2	—	60
Rhine wine (German, like Hockheimer "hock")	100	Wine glass	9.5 9.5	1.0 1.0	0.2 0.2	—	70

† Wines contain from 6 to 20 per cent of alcohol by weight, depending upon the variety. They usually contain 0.5 to 1 per cent acidity from tartaric, lactic and phosphoric acids; also 0.1 to 0.3 per cent mineral salts. Additionally, they contain 0.5 to 1 per cent of glycerine. Red wines contain 0.1 to 0.3 per cent tannin.

— indicates negligible or absent.

83. — Composition and Fuel Values of Alcoholic Beverages. (Continued.)

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				
	Grams.	Household measure.	Alcohol.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
Wines:—(Continued.)							
Chateau wine (French)	100	Wine glass	10.5 10.5	2.0 2.0	0.2 0.2	— —	80
Sweet and Dessert Wines:							
Malaga (Spanish)	100	Wine glass	10.5 10.5	20.0 20.0	0.3 0.3	— —	155
Marsala, Malvasia, Lacrimæ Christi (Italian)	100	Wine glass	12.0 12.0	5.0 5.0	0.3 0.3	— —	110
Port wine (Portu- guese), Douro	100	Wine glass	15.0 15.0	6.0 6.0	0.3 0.3	— —	130
Sherry, Amontillado, Tarragona, etc.	100	Wine glass	15.0 15.0	3.0 3.0	0.3 0.3	— —	120
Tokay (Hungarian)	100	Wine glass	10.0 10.0	12.0 12.0	0.3 0.3	— —	120
Vermouth (French) ¹	100	Wine glass	15.0 15.0	1.0 1.0	— —	— —	110
Vermouth (Italian), Dubonnet, etc. ¹	100	Wine glass	18.0 18.0	12.0 12.0	— —	— —	175
Distilled Liquors:†							
Absinthe (Swiss)	20	Cordial glass	7.0 35.0	— —	— —	— —	50
Akvavit (Norwegian)	20	Cordial glass	7.0 35.0	0.2 1.0	— —	— —	50
Applejack	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
Arrac (Palm wine dis- trict)	20	Cordial glass	7.0 35.0	— —	— —	— —	50
Bacardi rum	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
Bitters: Angostura, orange, Boonekamp, etc.	4	1 teaspoon	1.4 35.0	— —	— —	— —	10
Brandy, apple	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
Brandy, apricot	30	Brandy glass	9.0 30.0	— —	— —	— —	65
Brandy, California	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
Brandy, cherry	30	Brandy glass	13.2 44.0	— —	— —	— —	90
Brandy, cognac (French)	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
Gin, dry	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75

Vermouth and Dubonnet contain extracts of herbs, giving them distinctive properties.

Liquors contain from 18 to 50 per cent alcohol, depending upon the variety. They usually contain less than 0.1 per cent fusel oils. Liquors made from high quality alcohol are free of fusel oils. Esters and essential oils amount to less than 0.1 per cent and acids less than 0.1 per cent. Water indicates negligible or absent.

TABLE 83. — Composition and Fuel Values of Alcoholic Beverages
(Continued.)

Items.	Size of portion.		Value of portion.				
	Grams.	Household measure.	Alcohol.	Carb.	Prot.	Fat.	Cal.
III. Distilled Liquors: (Continued.)							
Kirschwasser	20	Cordial glass	7.0 35.0	— —	— —	— —	50
<i>Liqueurs, Cordials:</i>							
Anisette	20	Cordial glass	7.0 35.0	7.0 35.0	— —	— —	80
Apricot brandy	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	6.0 30.0	— —	— —	65
Benedictine	20	Cordial glass	6.6 33.0	6.6 33.0	— —	— —	75
Chartreuse	20	Cordial glass	6.6 33.0	6.6 33.0	— —	— —	75
Cherry brandy	20	Cordial glass	4.6 23.0	6.0 30.0	— —	— —	55
Crème apricot	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	6.0 30.0	— —	— —	65
Crème de cacao	20	Cordial glass	4.0 20.0	6.0 30.0	— —	— —	50
Crème de menthe	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	7.0 35.0	— —	— —	70
Crème de Violette . . .	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	6.0 30.0	— —	— —	65
Crème Yvette	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	6.0 30.0	— —	— —	65
Curaçao (orange peel)	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	4.0 20.0	— —	— —	60
Kümmel (caraway seed)	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	2.0 10.0	— —	— —	50
Maraschino (cherry)	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	8.0 40.0	— —	— —	75
Swedish punch	20	Cordial glass	6.0 30.0	5.0 25.0	— —	— —	60
Rum, Jamaica, Martinique	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
Sloe gin	30	Brandy glass	8.4 28.0	4.5 15.0	— —	— —	75
Vodka	20	Cordial glass	9.0 45.0	— —	— —	— —	65
Whiskies: Bourbon . . .	30	Brandy glass	12.0 40.0	— —	— —	— —	85
Irish	30	Brandy glass	12.0 40.0	— —	— —	— —	85
Rye	30	Brandy glass	12.0 40.0	— —	— —	— —	85
Scotch	30	Brandy glass	10.5 35.0	— —	— —	— —	75
IV. Miscellaneous:							
Cider, American:							
Sweet	230	1 cup	0.2 0.1	24.1 10.5	— —	— —	100
Fermented (hard) . . .	100	Wine glass	5.2 5.2	1.0 1.0	— —	— —	40
Grenadine syrup	20	Cordial glass	— —	12.0 60.0	— —	— —	50
Maraschino cherry juice .	5	1 teaspoon	— —	1.8 35.0	— —	— —	7
Raspberry syrup	20	Cordial glass	— —	12.0 60.0	— —	— —	50

— indicates negligible or absent.

ness, it is essential for the physician to be conversant with the constituents of mixed alcoholic beverages. This is particularly so for the practitioner in a large city or for one practising in a foreign element. Table 84 presents qualitative ingredients of the various common, mixed alcoholic beverages. Efforts have been made to delete purely local or fanciful mixtures or those of passing vogue.

84. — Qualitative Ingredients of Mixed Alcoholic Beverages.*

* These are iced and diluted mixtures of distilled liquors with fruit juices or certain wines (Vermouth, etc.).

Absinthe: Absinthe, water, syrup, Angostura bitters.

Academy: Gin, crème de cacao, cream.

Applejack: Applejack, grenadine, lemon juice.

French: Gin, French vermouth, orange bitters.

Bacardi: Bacardi rum, grenadine, lime juice.

Brandy: Brandy, gin, Angostura bitters.

Gin: Gin, French or Italian vermouth, orange juice.

Champagne: Champagne, sugar, Angostura bitters, slice of orange, lemon peel.

Club: Gin, raspberry syrup, lemon juice, egg-white.

Bacardi: Bacardi rum, sugar, lemon or lime juice.

Dubonnet: Gin, Dubonnet, orange bitters.

Curaçao: Bacardi rum, French vermouth, grenadine, Curaçao.

Gin: Gin, orange bitters.

Grapefruit: Gin, grapefruit juice, lemon juice.

Pineapple: Bacardi rum, pineapple juice.

Italian: Gin, Italian vermouth, maraschino, grapefruit juice.

Rose: Applejack, grenadine, lime juice.

Key Club: Gin, crème de noyau, Angostura bitters, orange bitters, lemon juice.

Whiskey: Rye whiskey, Italian vermouth, Angostura bitters.

Martell: Martell brandy, honey, lime juice.

Dry: Gin, French vermouth.

Sweet: Gin, Italian vermouth, orange bitters.

Widow: Gin, French vermouth, absinthe, benedictine, Angostura bitters.

Whiskey: Rye whiskey, Angostura bitters, sugar, seltzer.

Blossom: Gin, orange juice.

Apricot: Gin, apricot brandy, orange juice.

French: Gin, French and Italian vermouth.

Lady: Applejack, gin, grenadine, lime juice, egg-white.

Apricot: Apricot brandy, sweet cream.

French: Gin, French vermouth, Dubonnet.

Cointreau: Brandy, cointreau, lime juice.

Gin: Sloe gin, French and Italian vermouth.

Kiss: French and Italian vermouth, Dubonnet, orange juice.

Brandy and Jerry: Brandy, rum, egg, sugar.

Whiskey Sour: Rye whiskey, sugar, lemon juice.

Mixtures: Mixtures of wines or whiskey with fruit juices, sugar and non-alcoholic fluids.

Brandy: Brandy, fruit, sugar, seltzer.

Claret: Claret, fruit, sugar, seltzer.

Port: Port wine, fruit, sugar, seltzer.

Indicates negligible or absent.

The compositions and fuel values of mixed alcoholic beverages necessarily vary and are not capable of reliable analytical presentation.

TABLE 84.—Qualitative Ingredients of Mixed Alcoholic Beverages
(Continued.)

Cobblers:—(Continued.)

Rhine: Rhine wine, fruit, sugar, seltzer.
Sherry: Sherry wine, fruit, sugar, seltzer.
Whiskey: Whiskey, fruit, sugar, seltzer.

Collins: Mixtures of gin, fruit juices, sugar and non-alcoholic diluents.

Tom Collins: Gin, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
John Collins: Hollands gin, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.

Eggnogs: Mixtures of distilled liquors, eggs, milk and sugar.

Brandy: Brandy, rum, whole egg, milk, sugar.
Rye: Rye whiskey, whole egg, milk, sugar.
Scotch: Scotch whiskey, whole egg, milk, sugar.
Sherry: Sherry wine, rum, whole egg, milk, sugar.

Fizzes: Mixtures of gin or brandy, fruit juices, eggs, sugar and non-alcoholic diluents.

Brandy: Brandy, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Gin: Gin, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Golden: Gin, egg-yolk, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Grenadine: Gin, grenadine, lemon juice, sugar, milk, seltzer.
New Orleans: Gin, egg-white, orange flower water, sugar, cream, seltzer.
Royal: Gin, whole egg, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Silver: Gin, egg-white, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Sloe Gin: Sloe gin, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.

Flips: Mixtures of distilled liquors, eggs, sugar and nutmeg.

Brandy: Brandy, whole egg, sugar, nutmeg.
Port: Port wine, whole egg, sugar, nutmeg.
Sherry: Sherry wine, whole egg, sugar, nutmeg.
Whiskey: Scotch or rye whiskey, whole egg, sugar, nutmeg.

Highballs: Mixtures of distilled liquors and non-alcoholic diluents.

Bourbon: Bourbon whiskey, seltzer or ginger ale.
Gin: Gin, seltzer or ginger ale.
Rye: Rye whiskey, seltzer or ginger ale.
Scotch: Scotch whiskey, seltzer or ginger ale.

Rickeys: Mixtures of gin, lime juice and non-alcoholic diluents.

Gin: Gin, lime juice, seltzer.
Puerto Rico: Gin, grenadine, lime juice, seltzer.
Sloe Gin: Sloe gin, lime juice, seltzer.

Sours: Mixtures of distilled liquors, lemon juice, sugar and non-alcoholic diluents.

Applejack: Applejack, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Bourbon: Bourbon whiskey, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Brandy: Brandy, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Gin: Gin, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Rye: Rye whiskey, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.
Scotch: Scotch whiskey, lemon juice, sugar, seltzer.

Fancy Drinks:

Horses Neck: Ginger ale, lemon peel.
Mamie Taylor: Scotch whiskey, lime juice, ginger ale.
Mint Julep: Bourbon whiskey, water, sugar, mint sprigs.
Planters Punch: Jamaica rum, grenadine, Curaçao, lemon juice.
Whiskey Punch: Whiskey, water, sugar, lemon juice.
Whiskey Smash: Whiskey, water, sugar, mint sprigs.
White Plush: Rye whiskey, maraschino, whole egg, milk.
Widow's Dream: Benedictine, whole egg, cream.

Pousse Cafés:

Cream: Maraschino, crème de menthe, yellow chartreuse, brandy.
Cream: Raspberry syrup, anisette, crème Yvette, yellow chartreuse, green chartreuse, brandy.

DEFINITIONS AND DESCRIPTIONS.

Albumen most commonly signifies white of egg but may be used for any simple protein soluble in water or salt solutions and coagulated by heat.

Albumenized milk consists of 6 ounces of chilled whole milk to which 1 or 2 whites of egg have been added after being clipped with a knife and strained through cheesecloth to remove stringy parts. Egg-whites are either stirred into the milk with a fork or shaken vigorously in the presence of cracked ice.

Albumenized tea is iced tea to which 1 white of egg per cup has been added as in the preparation of albumenized milk.

Albumin is the chemical term for a specific type of protein which is found in egg-white, blood serum, etc.

Macaroni (Italian) *Paste* is a dried dough of wheat flour used in the making of macaroni, spaghetti, vermicelli, noodles, etc.

Oven-baked foods are those which are cooked in an oven by the application of dry heat, usually in an uncovered pan.

Consommé or *clear soup* is a clear soup; an aqueous extract of lean beef obtained by prolonged boiling followed by straining. The term "broth" is commonly used for this extract. Although it serves to introduce a fluid into the body and stimulate the appetite, it possesses little other nutritive value.

Biscuits are generally sweetened cookies baked so as to remove practically all the moisture and are usually wafer-like and crisp in texture. In the United States the word "biscuit" also applies to a hard, baked mass of unsweetened, leavened dough, soft in texture but containing considerable moisture.

Boiled foods are those which have been cooked by boiling in water.

Bohnensuppe consists generally of beef, veal and pork trimmings cut fine, spiced and stuffed into large wide casings. Ham *bohnensuppe* contains large cubes of lean pork shoulder or shoulder butt.

Consommé is a broth or clear soup which can be an extract of meats, vegetables or fish.

Brined foods are those which have been preserved by steeping or soaking in brine.

Roasted foods are those cooked by direct exposure to heat over an open fire or other source of direct heat.

Broth is a fluid food; a thin soup in which meat and usually vegetables are boiled and macerated. Frequently, it has little or no caloric value.

Buns are a well-known class of small, light, sweet and generally round style of bakery product, made essentially from wheat flour and containing other ingredients. Buns have a texture similar to that of bread.

Cake consists of a sweetened mixture of flour, shortening and other ingredients, leavened or unleavened, and baked into a loaf or mass of any size or shape.

Canned foods are products preserved in air-tight containers with or without the addition of sugar, acid and condiments and subjected to heat.

Cereals are substances derived from plants yielding grain or farinaceous seeds used as foods, such as wheat, maize, rye, oats, barley, millet, etc.

Chipped beef is sliced, dried beef.

Compound cheese is a blend of cheddar cheese and milk or milk products (as whey) usually accomplished with an emulsifying agent; sodium chloride and citrate are frequently added. *Process cheese* is a cheddar cheese which has been ground, mixed with an emulsifying agent and seasoned with salt to form a product which can be spread.

Condensed milk is concentrated milk preserved by the addition of about 40 per cent of cane sugar.

Consommé is a clear meat-extract soup made rich by long and slow cooking.

Cookies, in the United States, are a form of small, flat, sweetened cakes with higher moisture content than biscuits.

Cottage cheese is a home-made or commercial cheese made from curdled milk; "Dutch cheese."

Crackers, in the United States, are thin, crisp, unleavened pieces of dough, unsweetened or slightly sweetened and baked thoroughly to remove practically all the moisture.

Cream cheese is a soft cheese prepared from curd made from new milk to which a certain quantity of cream is added; also cheese in general made from whole milk to which extra cream has been added.

is a cake of leavened dough, sweetened, spiced and fried in fat or oil. The term "cruller" comes from the Dutch word, "kruller," meaning curled. In contrast to doughnuts, crullers are curled or gashed crosswise before cooking.

"Milk products" is a term applied to milk and all the foods or products made from milk. Included among these foods are milk, cream, buttermilk, cream, butter, all varieties of cheese, ice-cream, acidophilus milk, condensed milk, evaporated milk, powdered milk, malted milk, whey, casein, lactose and the fermented products (koumiss, yoghurt, etc.).

Nutrition is the application of the science of nutrition to the health of all individuals under differing circumstances of health and disease.

Pan-fried doughnut is a cake of varied shape, made of leavened, sweetened and frequently spiced dough. It is cooked by frying in deep fat or oil. Usually it is ring-shaped.

Pickled beef consists generally of the thick flank of beef, which is then set in a pickle of salt, sugar and saltpeter for about ten to fourteen days and then smoked like ham.

Powdered milk—often called powdered milk—contains a low degree of moisture, generally about 2 per cent, and is available in three general classes: whole milk, partly skim and skim milk.

Evaporated milk is the product resulting from the evaporation of about 60 per cent of the water from whole cow's milk. It is homogenized, and sterilized in hermetically sealed tins, and must contain not less than 7.8 per cent milk fat.

Nutrients are those substances which, when taken into the body, furnish heat and energy, supply the elements for growth and replacement of waste, and regulate the body processes.

Fried foods are those which are cooked by immersion into hot fat or oil.

Fruit is the edible portion of a perennial or woody plant, consisting of the ripened seeds and the surrounding tissues. Fruit usually contains about 80 per cent water, a low percentage of proteins and is associated with a relatively high carbohydrate content. Fruit is an important carrier of mineral matter and vitamins, especially in C.

Fruit albumen consists of the juice of half an orange and half a lemon together with one-half cup of chopped ice and one-half teaspoonful of sugar to which 1 or 2 whites of egg are added as in the preparation of albumenized milk.

Fruit juice is the unfermented liquid obtained from the first pressing of sound, ripe, fresh fruit or its pulp, and conforms in taste to the fruit from which it is obtained.

Fruit juice salad dressing consists of a cupful of pineapple or other tart fruit juice to which 2 level teaspoonsful of cornstarch have been added for thickening.

Grape juice is the unfermented juice of sound, ripe grapes. It is obtained by a single pressing of the fruit with or without the aid of heat and with or without the removal of insoluble matter.

"*Homogenized*" foods are foods which have been subjected to a special process which renders them easily digestible by breaking the food cells, releasing the contained nutriment and reducing the fibers to minute particles without removing the bulk.

Jams are a type of sweet preserves in which the whole fruit is cooked and reduced to a pulp in a concentrated sugar solution.

Legume is a two-valved seed-vessel having its seeds attached to one side only; any plant of the bean family, such as peas, beans, lentils, tamarinds, peanuts, etc.

Marmalade is a semi-liquid fruit preserve in which the pulp or juice is boiled with portions of the rind.

Mineral oil dressing consists of equal parts of mineral oil and vinegar, beaten with a little ice, salt and pepper, then served at once after removing the ice.

Mineral oil French dressing consists of a well-beaten mixture of mineral oil (4 T.), vinegar (2 T.), salt ($\frac{1}{2}$ t.), pepper ($\frac{1}{8}$ t.) and paprika.

Muffin is a cake, usually round, and is baked in a cup-cake pan. It is unsweetened and leavened to give an open porous texture.

Nutrition may be defined as the sum of all physical and chemical reactions involved in the stimulation of growth and maintenance of proper body function.

Orange juice is the unfermented juice obtained from sound, ripe, sweet oranges. It may contain a portion of the pulp and of the volatile oil.

Pan-broiled foods are those cooked in a hot frying pan or griddle without adding any fat.

Pan-fried foods are those cooked in a small quantity of fat or oil on a metal plate.

led foods are those which are cooked by placing the article in water and gradually raising the temperature to the boiling point. It is then removed, plunged into cold water and left until the boiling is a method of partial cooking.

s are articles of food made of a paste of flour and shortening rolled to a light, flaky product.

nized milk is milk to which an enzyme has been added for the purpose of protein digestion. The peptonizing powder is dissolved in a gill of cold water in a quart-sized glass jar. After a pint of milk has been added, it is thoroughly mixed. The jar is placed in a deep pan containing water at least to the level of the milk and the temperature of 115° F. which is comfortably warm to the hands. The temperature is maintained for five to ten minutes according to the degree of peptonization required. The jar is transferred to a pan of cold water and subsequently stored on ice.

led foods are those which have been preserved in brine or in vinegar.

cheese is generally considered to be the same as cottage cheese, but the two may be differentiated by the fat content.

ed cream cheese is considered a synonym for cream cheese.

served foods are those prevented from decomposition or fermentation by some preservative, such as salt, sugar, etc. In the case of preserved fruit, the preservative is sugar.

ness cheese—see Compounded Cheese.

eed foods are usually made by boiling and rubbing them through a sieve, as a purée of fish, peas or prunes.

sted foods, as formerly implied, referred to those foods cooked over a spit before an open fire, but today roasted foods invariably include those which have been baked in an oven.

s are generally a variety of fancy bread, usually in the form of a small, pointed oval, round or semi-cylindrical shapes, which are usually hot as a rule.

ines are a type of soda cracker about 2 inches square with a thin portion of shortening, salted on the surface and baked so that the top of the biscuit is white and the bottom is quite brown.

sage is a product of varied style which consists primarily of cured meat, generally beef or pork or both, cured, spiced and rolled into beef, sheep or hog casings. It may be cooked in some styles and in others eaten fresh.

téed foods are, as applied to meats or fish, those prepared by a method practically the same as "dry frying." The food is "tossed" by moving the pan quickly backward and forward over a brisk fire.

*Skim milk** is milk from which most of the cream has been removed. This decreases the fat percentage and raises slightly the percentages of proteins and sugar.

Smoked foods are usually meats which are cured by a mixture of salt, saltpeter and sugar, or sugar or salt alone, and then preserved by wood smoke.

Soft drinks are divided into two classes, aerated table waters and effervescent beverages. The latter are flavored and are known in the United States as carbonated beverages, also as soda water. Natural and synthetic flavors are used. Natural flavors are from fruits, nuts, roots, herbs, bark and leaves of plants. Synthetic flavors are made in the laboratory. Aerated waters are essentially non-alcoholic beverages artificially saturated with carbon dioxide.

Spiced foods are those having an aromatic or savory taste produced by the addition of spices.

Steamed foods are those prepared by cooking in steam.

Stewed foods are those prepared by simmering in a small quantity of water.

Strained foods are vegetables, fruits or cereals which have been precooked in the majority of instances and have been put through a sieve of some type with varying sized apertures. By this process a greater or lesser amount of the fiber of the food is mechanically removed. This renders the food particularly adaptable to feeding of infants and children as well as to certain gastro-intestinal conditions in the adult.

"Thrice-cooked" vegetables (washed) are any vegetables cooked under the following conditions: Boiled in three successive waters, throwing away each and all of the water every time. After the second water has been completely discarded, additional hot water is to be added to meet the necessary boiling requirements to render the food edible. In this manner nearly all soluble carbohydrate is removed. When 3 per cent vegetables are so prepared they are considered caloric-free. This type of vegetable is particularly useful in diabetes or obesity.

Tomato pomace is the dried residue left after the preparation of tomato juice.

Vegetables are parts or the whole of herbs used chiefly for culinary purposes.

Vitamin is a term used to designate certain organic compounds occurring in natural foods which are necessary for normal development, structure or function, and are physiologically effective in minute amounts.

* The term "skimmed milk" is not acceptable.

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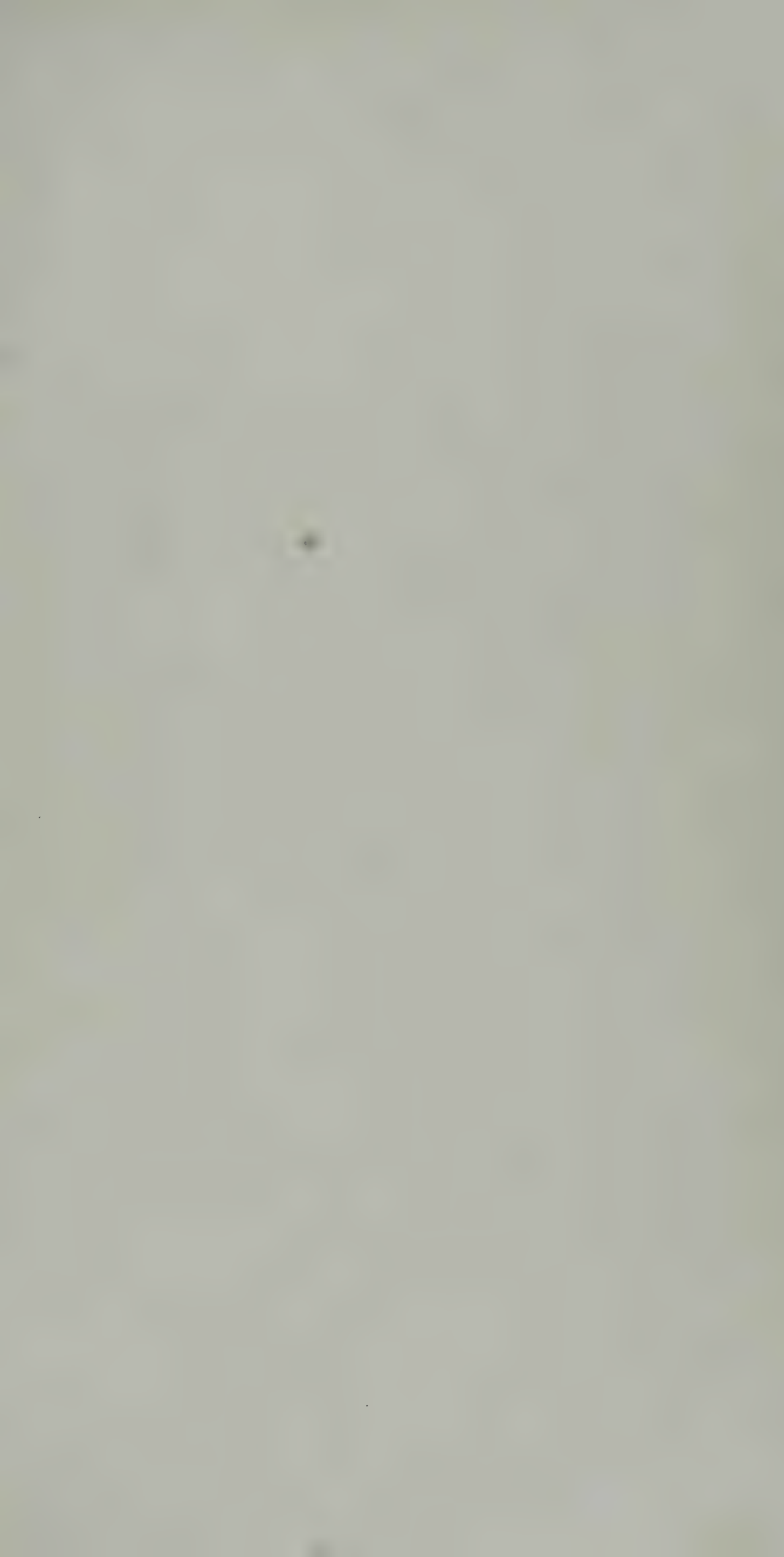
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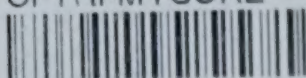
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